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THE FLORAL GAMES OF TOULOUSE

(Continued from vol. XII, p. 275)

THE POETRY OF THE LIVRE ROUGE

While winning poems were not transcribed in the Livre Rouge before 1539, there is sufficient information in the records to enable us to determine the nature of them. In 1513, Hugues Roguier won the Gauch (Souci) or Marigold for a ballade in the langue d'oc. This seems to have been the last time that a prize was awarded for a poem in the native language. The Violet was awarded to a student, Jacques Sapientis, for a ballade unisonant et entrelassée, upon the blason of the counts of Toulouse. From 1514 to 1518, the records are wanting. In 1519, Jean de Villeneuve was awarded the Marigold for an oraison de Notre Dame in the form of a ballade. Jehan de Vignes, a priest, won the Eglantine for a ballade unisonante in praise of Saint Sebastian; and the Violet was won by Jehan Pérot, student, for a ballade on the university of Toulouse. The refrain of his poem,

"Le dieu Phœbus est venu d'Ylion."

shows a fondness for parading classical names, one of the marked characteristics of the Rhetoricians. The next record (1535) is

⁴³ While no poems composed in the language of the South were awarded prizes during the period covered by the *Livre Rouge* (1513–1641), it was not long after this period that Grégoire de Barutel in 1651 won the Eglantine for a *chant royal* composed in the Gascon dialect. This was no doubt an exceptional case. The practice of awarding prizes for poems in Provençal was revived only in the later nineteenth century, and at present they have their regular place in the annual competition for prizes.

taken up with a quarrel between the mainteneurs and the capitouls over the election of a chancellor, and no mention is made of the contest. The next is that of 1539, the time when the winning poems began to be inscribed in the Livre Rouge. Of the two poems recorded, one is a chant royal by Pierre Trassabot, a native of Toulouse who acquired considerable reputation as a musician, painter and sculptor. This is the first chant royal of which there is any record, and may have been the first for which a prize was awarded in the Floral Games. The theme, that life is a constant struggle, is commonplace, and the refrain reflects the Rhetoricians' liking for sententious or proverbial sayings: 48

"Que vye humaine a icy tousjours guerre."

The poet injects into his composition a certain imagery and portrays faithfully enough the life of the soldier of his day as well as the longing for peace and the hopes aroused over the prospect of it; the disillusionment that comes as other ills spring up to take the place of war; the cold, the heat, the storms, and all the things that beset man on his journey through this world.

The ballade for which Hector du Pertuiz won the Violet shows the influence of the *Roman de la Rose* in its personification of Melancholy, War, Death, etc.

"Fuyez chagrin, chassez mélancolye,"

says the poet, as he proceeds with a banal pæan of praise in honor of his sovereign, whom it would be impossible to recognize if we did not know that Francis I was reigning at the time.

With 1540, begins the sway of the *chant royal*. In that year all of the winning poems were of this genre, and, as has already been stated, with few exceptions the *chant royal* will hold undisputed sway in the Floral Games until the end of the seventeenth century. Throughout the sixteenth century, the content and spirit of the winning poems will be determined by the models of the Rhetoricians. Not that no influence will be exerted by the new spirit of the Renaissance as represented by the Pléiade, but that this influence is com-

44 The capitouls, or city fathers, participated in the Floral Games as representatives of the city, which furnished the funds to pay for the annual prizes.

45 "La façon dont les rhétoriqueurs concevaient la morale les conduisait nécessairement a l'exprimer en proverbes..."—Henry Guy: op. cit., p. 68.

paratively limited before the seventeenth century. In the seventeenth century. Pléiade influences will alter profoundly the content and spirit of many of the winning poems, but the form remains and the general conception of the chant royal lingers. In the sixteenth century it is the general ideas of the Renaissance, especially philosophy and science that attract the young poets, and their influence overshadows that of the Pléiade. Aside from the thought, the greatest innovations of the sixteenth century are, perhaps, the change from the verse of ten syllables to the alexandrin (in 1556), and the introduction of certain words and turns of expression characteristic of the Pléiade. In their language the poets of the Floral Games are not imitators of the effete Rhetoricians. French is a foreign language to many of them, and their works display the crudeness that accompanies the effort to write in a foreign tongue, but they have a respect for the language that was not possessed by the later Rhetori-Their attempts to express in French abstract and philosophical ideas which they have but poorly digested, often leads them into absurd turns of expression and grotesque figures of speech, but one is impressed by the seriousness with which the poets approach their task. With the progress of time, the language of the poets improves, and in the winning poems of the seventeenth century we see a gradual approach toward perfection; many of the poems containing lines and passages worthy of the great poets.

At the hands of the poets of the Floral Games, the *chant royal* becomes an instrument for the portrayal of allegory to the extent that the *envoi* loses its name and is succeeded by the word *allégorie*. Had the allegorical features of the poems been introduced in a skilful and natural manner, the poems that have been preserved in the *Livre Rouge* might stand as monuments of allegorical literature. But the reader after wading through five strophes in which are paraded names belonging to ancient mythology is suddenly startled, when he reaches the *envoi* or *allégorie*, to discover that Jupiter is God, that Apollo is Jesus, and that Daphne is the Virgin Mary. As was the case with their models, the poets of Toulouse had an artificial conception of allegory. Whatever of vitality there had been in the allegorical treatment of literary themes had long since passed away. For the poets of Toulouse, antiquity presents the same sort of

fascination that it did for their models of the north; nor do the former understand the ancient world any better than the latter. The difference between the Rhetoricians and the Pléiade is that while the former knew about antiquity, the latter knew it. Like the Rhetoricians, the poets of the Floral Games have a fondness for parading their knowledge. Under their pens long enumerations are made of the heroes of antiquity: heroes and heroines of mythology, great writers, characters from history. The occult sciences, astrology and alchemy, have an irresistible charm. Abstruse questions of philosophy attract these student poets as the flame does the moth. burning questions of the times hardly disturb them at all. But for an occasional poem on the reigning sovereign or the dauphin, there is scarcely any portraval of the times in approximately three hundred chants royaux recorded in the Livre Rouge, covering a period of a hundred years, the period which witnessed the struggles of humanism and the Reformation, and in the political realm the growth of France into an absolute monarchy under the strong hand of Richelieu.

A survey of a few of the poems contained in the *Livre Rouge* will furnish the key to the contents as a whole. By 1540, as already stated, all of the winning poems were *chants royaux*. In that year a young poet, Corrière, celebrates a shepherd guarding his flocks in a "sumptuous valley." In the *envoi* we are told that the shepherd is God, the flock is human nature, the lamb is the Saviour, and the sheep, the Virgin. Claude Terlon⁴⁰ depicts the passion of our Lord. Apollo is Jesus, Daphne is his body born in chastity. Jehan Rus, of Bordeaux, celebrates "l'arbre passant toute œuvre naturelle." This marvellous tree, situated "towards Greece," has a powerful attraction:

De toutes partz, pour ce boys à grand presse Vous eussiez veu gens venir et aller.⁴⁷

The Grand Turk appears to mar the perfect bliss and happiness of the scene. The tree is Jesus, the Grand Turk is the Devil.

> Qui fist mourir (au moings comme il pensoit) L'arbre passant toute œuvre naturelle.

46 Also spelled = Trellon.

48 Should be qui.

⁴⁷ Some of the poems cited have been previously printed, but many are here published for the first time.

In 1541, Pierre du Cèdre, who was to play a leading part as a Huguenot in the religious troubles at Toulouse in the second half of the century, celebrated the excellence of Poetry in crude verses in which he enumerated a list of names from the Bible and from Greek and Roman antiquity: Moses, David, Orpheus, Museus, the Sybil, Lynus, Plato, Homer, Virgil, and Ovid, concluding his argument with the refrain:

"Laurier sans feuille et sans loz bon poète."

Mercadier de Besse wrestles with the "Cognition de la chose divine." In 1543 Pierre Pascal introduces us to another wonderful tree, this time the marvellous tree is "towards Judea," and is a tree

"Que48 l'homme rend à jamais bien heureux."

In 1544, Étienne Forcatel,⁴⁹ who later was selected as professor of law in the university for the chair for which Cujas⁵⁰ had entered into competition, began an unintelligible philosophical poem:

"Démagorgon, le grand père des dieux, Sortit du creux de l'abisme du monde. . . . "

In 1548, Anthoine Noguier, who wrote in Latin a well known history of Toulouse is obsessed with the idea of primal causes, the remoteness of which he seeks to impress upon the reader by the repetition of the word "avant:"

"Avant le poix, avant nombre et mesure,
Avant Chaos et, son encombrement,
Avant le cours de Phœbus qui mesure
Les chaudz et froidz sentiers obliquement,
Avant que fust du monde la machine,
Avant la mer et son ample piscine,
Avant que feust le Centre mesuré,
L'idée estoit sans fin nulle et naissance
Et contenoit en son sein azuré
Ung tout en trois d'une mesmes essence."

From the allégorie we learn that the "tout en trois" is the Trinity.

⁴⁰ In the *Livre Rouge*, he signs his name thus, but it has usually appeared in print as *Forcadel*.

⁵⁰ Known as the Father of Modern Law.

In 1549, Hélie Boyresse's vision is dazzled by a green tree, "pleasant and delectable;" from the refrain we learn that it is

"La verte olyve en ce monde honnorée."

and from the Envoi, the son of God "fruict sortant de la pucelle." In the same year Mathieu de Chalvet, afterwards first president of the parlement of Toulouse, and translator of Seneca, carried his audience into a "cloz delicieulx" to witness

"Le seul Phénix, se tuant pour renaistre."

In 1550, Jehan de Flavyn has an eye single to

"Le poinct parfaict dont deppend tout le monde."

In 1551, Pierre de Sainct Aignan celebrates

"La nef flottant pour le salut du monde."

In 1554, an honorary prize was awarded to Pierre de Ronsard,⁵¹ and for the first time a *sonnet* appeared upon the records of the *Livre Rouge*, not as a winning poem, but accompanying a *ballade*, for which Sanxon de la Croix, *escollier*, was awarded the Violet. Since the *ballade* had practically ceased to be a form of the Floral Games, we are led to suspect that the judges were influenced in their decision by the *sonnet*:

"Chantez, mes vers, entonnez un tel son
Que vous puissiez plaire aux doctes oreilles,
Et toy, mon luth, fredonne les merveilles
De l'Éternel, en ta doulce chanson.

Tu as apriz de Phébus ta leçon,
Ces chantz secretz et choses nonpareilles
Et pourquoy donc est-ce que tu sommeilles,
Te congnoissant des Muses nourrisson?

Fay moy parler tes résonnantes cordes
Le loz divin que sur elles accordes

Le loz divin que sur elles accordes, Et charge-moy sur tes chansons de miel,

Afin qu'estant sur leur eschigne forte, Je puisse ung jour aller frapper la porte Du temple sainct qu'ont les Muses au ciel."

⁸¹ An honorary prize was awarded to Baif in 1586.

A few sonnets aside, the first sustained breath of the Renaissance is to be found in a hymn on the Nativity, a poem of almost a hundred lines in *alexandrins*, which Loys du Pin inserted, along with a conventional *chant royal*, in 1569:

"Sus! laissés voz brebis et voz troupeaulx de bestes; Accourés tous ensemble aveques voz musètes, Prenez, voz chalumeaux et d'un son gracieux Chantés et rechantés chascun à qui mieulx mieulx, Car c'est à ceste nuict que le filz du grand père Est sorty des liens du ventre de sa mère. Sus donc! despechés vous, en Bethléem courés, Où sur ung peu de foin l'enfant vous troeuverés."

The poets of the Floral Games of the sixteenth century have a fondness for miraculous trees and paradisiacal gardens. François de Chalvet succeeds in giving an atmosphere of actuality to such threadbare themes when he introduces us to

"Le jardin fleurissant sur les bordz de Garonne."

The "chaste pucelle" who graces it with her presence is Clémence Ysaure, "les grand dieux" are the capitouls, and the flowers that adorn it are the Violet, Eglantine and Marigold of the Floral Games. The poem is grotesque; but perhaps the most sublimely ridiculous poem in the whole collection is one by which the same writer won his third prize, the Eglantine, in 1581. The refrain indicates the nature of the poem:

"L'œuvre qui se parfaict dans le vase alchimique."

The auvre is the philosophical egg,

"C'est l'œuf philosophal dans lequel on proiète Durant trois mois triplés nostre pierre secrète."

In 1577, Jehan Sevestre, a Parisian, presented a chant royal and won the Eglantine. His poem in honor of the holy and sacred Trinity, the poet calls a chant royal monocole, dédocastrophe, intercalaire, acrostiche. He calls the first strophe Proode, the second Strophe, the third Mésode, the fourth Antistrophe, the fifth Epode, and the envoi, Epirrhème. Thus, in this poem are blended ill-digested ideas of the Rhetoricians and the Pléiade. For all the

poet's pretensions, the poem does not differ from the other chants royaux except that it is an acrostic and instead of being monocle, perfectly homogeneous, as the author claims, is perhaps more incoherent than the majority of the poems contained in the Livre Rouge. The first letters of the lines of the first strophe spell the poet's name. Those of the second strophe tell that he is "Parisien," and the first lines of the remaining strophes announce the subject of the poem: "En l'honneur de la saincte et sacrée Trinité." The first strophe illustrates sufficiently the chant royal as a whole:

"Je chanteray l'honneur souverain de nature,
Après Pythagoras, montant dessus les cieux,
N'ayant encore aucun frayé cest' adventure,
Sur le plus hault esprit j'esleveray mes yeux.
En l'unité on voit l'origine première
Vn principe comun de toute la matière
Et de la forme ornant cest univers parfaict;
Toute loy tend à un, ainsi qu'un a tout faict,
Retourne tout en un, començant un en nombre
Et finist on en un, car tout faict et refaict
L'unité divisant et unissant tout nombre."

The poet's belief in the virtue of numbers is a reminiscence of the Pythagorean philosophy which was reduced by the schoolmen of the middle ages to abstract formulas. To certain numbers, such as 1, 3, 4, 5, 9, and 10, marvellous powers or properties were attributed, From the time of Dhuoda, who wrote in Latin in the ninth century, to go back no further, down through the middle ages, the science of numbers had attracted writers. Frequently the poets of the Floral Games enveloped their poems in the mystery and allegory of numbers.

"Le trois, nombre sacré, moulle de toute essence."

"Le rond qui du quadrangle est le centre immobile."

"Les trois angles esgaulx du parfait isoplure."

"Le rond qui de trois ronds est le centre immobile."

Excursions into physics, chemistry, or medicine, give such lines as:

In their wide interest in knowledge, in their boldness in approaching the most abstruse questions of philosophy, astrology, alchemy, astronomy, physics, medicine, chemistry, or what not, the poets of the second half of the sixteenth century at Toulouse are of the Renaissance. They represent the natural development of the tendencies of the Rhetoricians modified by the new spirit. By comparing them with the Pléiade, it is easy to see what a profound revolution was worked in French poetry by Du Bellay, Ronsard, Desportes, and other members of the group. The following lines, most of them refrains, will give some notion of the variety of the topics which these riders of an unruly Pegasus undertook to treat:⁵²

- 1552. "La ronde sphère à son centre fondée."
- 1553. "Le petit monde estant encor à naistre."
- 1554. "Les deux liqueurs arrosans tout le monde."
- 1558. "L'esprit universel infuz en ce bas monde."
- 1559. "La pure et simple forme exempte de nature."
- 1560. "Les formes qui sans forme ont formé la machine."
- 1561. "L'astre qui plus reluict au zodiaque oblique."
- 1562. "L'édifice immortel de la divine essence."
- 1564. "L'eschelle qui conjoinct la terre avec les cieux."
 - "La lune du soleil empruntant la lumiere."
- 1567. "La clarté flamboiant dans la lampe éternelle." 1569. "L'accord entretenant le ciel, la terre et l'onde."
- 1569. "L'accord entretenant le ciel, la terre et l'onde 1570. "L'estoille marinière aux navigans propice."
- 1573. "La matière aspirant à la forme parfaicte."
- 1573. "L'âme vivifiant ce que le ciel enserre."
- 1577. "L'estoile par l'escler du soleil redorée."
- 1579. "Les trois poinctz rapportés en la ligne écliptique."

⁵² Monsieur François de Gélis, mainteneur of the Floral Games, has recently written an article upon the humanistic tendencies of the poets of the Floral Games. See Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences de Toulouse, 1919: Les Poètes humanistes des Jeux Floraux.

[&]quot;L'aymant qui donne vie au métal insensible."

[&]quot;L'eau fort qui des métaux divise la substance."

[&]quot;Le simple distillé dans le bain de Marie."

[&]quot;Le corail destruisant le charme des sorcières."

[&]quot;Les effets merveilleux de l'eau de jalousie."

1581. "L'œuvre qui se parfaict dans le vase alchimique."

1584. "Les discors accordés d'éternelle discorde,"

1586. "Le cristal honorant la fontaine de vie."

1586. "Le luth qui remplist tout d'une saincte harmonie."

1589. "Le triangle accompli de trois lignes esgalles."
"Astrologue subtil, qui as la cognoissance.

De maintz évenements que tu vas prédisant."

1590. "Le charme qui nous lie à l'amour éternelle."

1591. "Je suis grand alchimiste et qui de la nature Recherche curieux les plus rares secretz."

1593. "L'esprit, l'âme et le cors de la pierre alchimique."

1596. "La navire bruslée au miroir d'Archimède."

1598. "Du bel astre argenté la lumière éclipsée."

1600. "La Colure marquant l'un et l'autre solstice."

1602. "Les sept astres puyssants qui esclairent le monde."

1604. "La verge descouvrant les richesses du monde."

1604. "Les douze astres bornans du soleil la carrière."

1613. "Le diamant brizé par ung coup de tonnerre."

1614. "Le ruisseau qui résoult les pierres endurcies."

1615. "Le néant devenu de l'infini capable."

Let it be recalled that the purpose of the poems, as reiterated again and again in the pages of the Livre Rouge, was to glorify God, the Virgin, and the saints. The effect of the Rhetorician influence and of the paganizing influence of the Renaissance was to deflect the poems from the stated purpose. The semblance of a religious import or intention was preserved by explaining in the envoi or allégorie that the things treated in the poem were symbolical, and had some religious or moral significance which the poet proceeds to indicate.

The fondness for the occult sciences on the part of the Toulouse poets was probably due to the impetus which they had received in France at the opening of the century. Cornelius Agrippa had lived for some time in Lyons. Other mediaeval scientists were there also, as for example, Simon de Pharès, whom Charles VIII visited in 1495, and an Italian who boasted of transmuting baser metals into gold. The celebrated Nostradamus lived in Provence in the earlier sixteenth century, and Julius Caesar Scaliger lived at Agen, not far from Toulouse. 53

⁵³ For a good account of Scaliger, see Christie, Étienne Dolet.

While influences of the Pléiade are not entirely wanting in the poems of the Floral Games in the sixteenth century, it is not until the beginning of the seventeenth that the Pléiade influence makes a sufficient impression to materially improve the poetic quality of the chant royal. In 1601, Paul du May, a young poet of Toulouse, won the Eglantine for a poem which shows a wide departure from the preceding poets.

"C'estoit en la saison que l'aisle peinturée
De Zéphir esvantoit maint fleuron gracieux,
Dont le nouveau printemps rend sa flore pourprée,
Descouvrant cest esmail qui décore les cieux,
Quand je vis ces thrésors dont la vermeille aurore
A la pointe du jour son visaige redore.
Et le tige amoureux du soucy blondissant
Qui baisoit le beau tainct de l'œilhet rougissant;
Admirant la beauté de sa fleur nompareille
Le soleil entr'ouvrist mes yeux esblouissant
Les lis d'or embrassans la fleur de lis vermeille."

This poem, on the marriage of Henry IV to Marie de Médicis and the arms or blasons of the two families, is conceived more nearly in the manner of the Pléiade than any of the poems, perhaps, that had preceded it. In this same year, a sonnet was inserted in the Livre Rouge, which is of interest as showing the influence of Desportes:

"Et quoi, mon cher souci, serez-vous toujours telle? Aimez-vous toujours à me faire mourir? Ha! que le Ciel fist mal de vous former si belle Et de tant de beaux dons vostre esprit favorir!

Mais bien, si tant vous plaist, une mort bien cruelle Bornera mes tourmens, sans guères plus souffrir, Puisque par trait de temps mon service fidelle N'a sçu de vos beaux yeux la rigueur amoindrir!

Ainsi parloit Philon, aiant l'âme blessée Des beaux yeux ennemis de sa belle Dircée, Trop beaux et trop cruelz à ses contentemens. Mais enfin ce berger, après tant de souffrances, Comme un ruzé soldat, il a donné dedans, Aiant par son discours abbattu les déffences."

In 1618, Jean Allard, of Mirapoix, was awarded the Eglantine for a *chant royal*, "à l'imitation des tableaux de Philostrate." This poem presents a curious blending of pagan sensuality and Christian morality:

"Voyés son sein de neige où mesmes dans la glace Amour nourrit ses feux et garde son flambeau; Sur ces deux petits monts quelquefois il prend place Et ressemble Apollon sur le double coupeau. Son col dessur l'yvoire emporte l'avantage, Mais l'art de la nature est plus grand au visage, Les lys y sont meslés d'un beau teint de pudeur, La rose est sur sa bouche, au dedans son odeur, Et Zéphire amoureux d'une si doulce haleine, Baise sans estre veu, tout pasmé de douceur Susanne qui se lave au bord de la fontaine.

In the reddition de l'allégorie we learn that Suzanne is the soul of the sinner.

The poem which is perhaps the best sustained throughout and which presents the most vivid imagery is that of Bernard d'Aliès, of Toulouse, Doctor of Theology, for which the Violet was awarded in 1623:

CHANT ROYAL.

Pour une description d'un pourtrait de Saincte Magdelaine.

Quel est ce beau pourtrait? Seroit-ce Magdelene? Mais pourquoy les couleurs l'ont peinte sans couleur? Elle qui parloit tant, va souspirant à peine, Elle qui rioit tant est pleine de doleur. Ses yeux qui les espritz rengeoient sous le servage, S'abaissent soubs la Croix et luy rendent homage. Ses mains, filles d'honeur, qui soignent sa beauté, En conspirent la perte avec sa cruaulté. Elle ravissoit tout, elle est touste ravie.

Non, sans doubte, voilà, foulant la vanité, Magdelene pleurant le printems de sa vie.

Elle est là de son long, sur l'herbe, la mondaine, Ainsin l'orage abat une nouvelle fleur Qui rehaussoit l'honneur et le pris d'une plaine, Et luy couvre son tainct d'un voile de palleur.

Mille amours de ses yeux fuient à vol, à nage, Les petitz-filz des eaux craignent-ilz le naufrage? Sur ce front, près des yeux, quelqu'un en est monté, Dans son sein, sur deux montz, les pleurs en ont porté, Qui deçà, qui delà, quelque route a suivie, Abandonant au deuil, en ceste extrémité, Magdelene pleurant le printems de sa vie.

Ce corail animé par où sort son haleine
Dans la mer de ses pleurs a laissé la rougeur;
Les roses et les lis dont sa face estoit plaine,
N'ont gardé que l'espine en noyant la fraîcheur.
Ses cheveux tout mouillés s'attachent au visage,
Leurs nœuds sont relâchés et leur foible cordage
Où tant et tant de cœurs perdoient la liberté,
Ne les retiennent plus dans la captivité.
Son sexe à sa beauté ne porte plus envie,
De tous ses dous appas les plus dous ont quitté
Magdelene pleurant le printems de sa vie.

Telle se lamentant on pourroit peindre Hélène, Quand le Grec d'Ilion demeura le vainceur, Si l'on ne sçavoit pas qu'elle estoit toutte vaine, Que les pleurs de ses yeux n'estoient pas ceux du cœur! Mais regardés la nostre avec quel fort courage Pour l'amour de son Dieu son beau corps elle outrage! On diroit que son bras n'est jamais arresté, Qu'un coup à l'autre coup est tousjours adjousté, Et ny lasse jamais, ny jamais assouvie, Extrême on voit tousjours, en son austérité, Magdelene pleurant le printemps de sa vie.

Elle mesle son sang à ses pleurs, l'inhumaine, Son âme seullement conserve sa blancheur. Un ruisseau de son sang coule de chasque veine,
Elle veut y noyer son crime et son erreur.
Son Dieu qui pend en croix sur le hault de l'ouvrage,
Semble de son amour lui rendre tesmoignage.
Voyés! elle se veut cacher en son costé
Et son esprit de zelle et d'ardeur transporté,
D'y faire sa demeure à jamais la convie,
Logeant dans le séjour de la félicité
Magdelene pleurant le printemps de sa vie.

REDDITION D'ALLÉGORIE.

Une âme qui cognoist le seigneur yrrité, Qui demande pardon à sa divinité, Rendant sa volonté soubs ses lois asservie, Elle est dans ce pourtrait, cerchant (sic) l'éternité Magdelene pleurant le printemps de sa vie.⁵⁴

Not often do the poets of the College of Rhetoric strike a personal note. There are, however, some cases:

J'estois près d'ung ruisseau dont les ondes sucrées Arrousoient de nectar les campaignes sacrées.

J'eslève mon esprit vers la voûte azurée, Pour chanter la bonté des secourables dieux.

Master Bertrand Larade shows himself a true Gascon:55

Une nouvelle ardeur eschauffe mon courage Et l'anime si fort qu'il se treuve emporté Du dézir violant d'entreprendre ung ouvrage Qui puisse faire ung jour, honte à l'antiquité.

54 Livre Rouge, vol. 2, f. 271. Published as a whole for the first time.
55 Bertrand de Larade was born in 1581 at Montréjeau. He became a poet and made his reputation by La Muse gasconne which he composed in 1607. This volume is made up of pastorals, chansons, odes and sonnets. In his Histoire littéraire des patois, Dr. Noulet represents him as a poet of little originality but of pleasing naïveté. In 1910 a commemorative tablet was placed upon the house which he had inhabited at Montréjeau, accompanied by eulogies in verse and prose, the most excessive of which characterised him as the Homer of Languedoc. The different editions of his works are: La Margalide gasconne (1604), La Muse gasconne (1607), La Muse piranese (1609). All three were printed at Toulouse by Colomiès.

Infrequently, the poets attempt to portray external nature. The following lines from Catel,⁵⁶ 1617, illustrate the ability of the young poets to deal with nature:

Les pluies, les frimas, la glace et la gelée,
La neige et la rigeur d'un hyver ocieux
Aux bruslantes chaleurs esgalement meslée,
Nous donent maintenant ung printemps gracieux,
Le soleil nous aproche et la terre plus belle,
Tapissée de fleurs, met sa robe nouvelle.
Tout rit à ce beau May, les petitz amoreaux
Dansent folastrement sur le bord des ruisseaux.
Et Zéphir qui fléchit soubz leur obéissance
Faict esclorre parmi la verdure des préaux
La fleur qui rend l'odeur au point de sa naissance.

The later Greek influence of the Renaissance which reached its most perfect expression in Racine, was felt at Toulouse. A strophe from a *chant royal* for which Bernard Boyssonade was awarded the Marigold in 1640, will be sufficient to illustrate the poet's ability in handling a Greek subject:

POLIXÈNE.

Ilion n'estoit plus; desjà toute la Grèce Songe à recevoir ces filz ou ces pères absans, Lorsque la terre s'ouvre au milieu de la presse; On oit de bruits confus et de cris languissans; Achille en sort et dit: "Race lâche et maudite, "S'il te souvient encor de mon peu de mérite,

"Que Polixene meure! En cela seullement

"Rends un juste devoir à mon ressentiment.

"Elle verra mon sang pour le sang de Troïle,

"Dois-je pas veoir aussy, pour mon soulagement,

"Polixene immolée au sépulchre d'Achille?"

The Livre Rouge contains several poems of more or less historical interest. Among them is one on the crowning of Louis XIII at Rheims:⁵⁷

56 Charles Catel, whom Dumège affirms, but without furnishing proofs, to have belonged to the family of the well-known historian, author of Les Comtes de Toulouse.

⁵⁷ Livre Rouge, vol. 2, f. 325, vo. Hitherto unpublished.

Les François, dans l'excès d'une joye incroiable,
Alumoint mille feus par touts les carrefours;
On n'oyoit dedans Reyms qu'un meslange agréable
De leurs chantz d'alégresse et du son des tambours;
Le pavé parsemé d'une moisson fleurie
Paroissoit soubs leurs pas une belle prairie;
Un ciel de drap, tendu pour la solempnité,
Déroboit à leurs yeux le ciel plain de clarté,
D'où pour nouveau subject de leur resjouissance
Venoint en ce moment à leur prince indompté
Les lys donnés du ciel au sceptre de la France.

Le devant des maisons, à ce jour mémorable, Effaçoit tout l'éclat des plus superbes Cours, Il ne paroissoit plus à soy mesme semblable, Revestu de drap d'or, de pourpre et de velours; Les festons, les tableaux et la tapisserie Changeoient la moindre rue en riche galerie, Chaque place sembloit un palais enchanté Tant elle avoit de pompe et de diversité, Lorsque, pour acomplir ceste magnificence On vit reluire en l'air, plain de sérénité, Les lys donnés du ciel au sceptre de la France.

Louis sortoit alors de ce temple admirable
Où son cœur abjura ses dieux foibles et sourds
Pour celuy qu'il avoit épreuvé secourable,
Sy tost qu'à sa puissance il avoit eu recours;
Ses précieux habits brilhoient de broderie,
Où ce mêloit la perle avec la pierrerie;
Son front d'une charmante et douce gravité
Mettoit d'accord l'amour avec la majesté,
Et ne faloit que veoir son aymable présence
Pour croire que le prince avoit bien mérité
Les lys donnés du ciel au sceptre de la France.

Aussy veoit-il soudain un héraud favorable Qui luy porte d'en haut ce visible secours; Il est surpris de veoir son visage adorable Qui ternit les appas du plus beau des amours, Son maintien le ravit, où, sans affeterie, Avecque la douceur la beauté ce marie; Il admire ces yeux, dont la vivacité Fait veoir quelque rayon de la divinité, Et commence à porter plus haut son espérance Despuis qu'entre ses mains ont si bien éclaté Les lys donnés du ciel au sceptre de la France. Grand Dieu, s'écrie alors ce prince incomparable, N'estoit-ce pas asses, pour bien heurer mes jours, D'avoir ceste liqueur, à jamais perdurable, Oui doit de nos bonheurs éterniser le cours, Sy pour mieux tesmoigner que ma chère patrie Sur tous autres pais de ton cœur est chérie, Tu n'usses le ciel mesmes en nos mains transporté, Et des trois astres d'or son azur marqueté. Continue enve(r)s nous, Seigneur, ta bienveillance, Et défens à jamais, de toute adversité. Les lys donnés du ciel au sceptre de la France.

Allégorie.

Mon Roy, qui de nos maux a la source tarie,
Est ce brave Louis, chassant l'idolâtrie,
Et le grand Richelieu, dont la fidélité
Maintient les trois estats sous son authorité
Et par qui son Empire est mis en asseurance,
Est cet ange qui porte en toute sureté
Les lys donnés du Ciel au sceptre de la France.

Jean Doujat (1634).88

In 1639 appeared a *chant royal* by a poet named Clarac in honor of the birth of the Dauphin, afterwards Louis XIV.⁵⁹ The author wrote also a comedy published at Lyons, entitled: *Arlequin ou Grapignan gascou*. Following is an extract of the poem:

"L'on voit autour de luy que la terre féconde Ne laisse jamais rien ny sécher ni pourrir.

⁶⁸ Jean Doujat, born 1606—died 1688, became a member of the French Academy in 1650. He was professor of canon and civil law in the university of Toulouse. It is said that he spoke nearly all the languages known, both ancient and modern. He collected a large library of works on theology, history and philology. He was the author of a well known Dictionnaire de la langue toulousaine. Before his death he was appointed historiographer to the king. In 1634 and 1638 he won the Eglantine and the Violet in the Floral Games.

59 Born September 5, 1638.

Une source de lait l'arrouse de son onde, Dont le cours immortel ne peut jamais tarir. Là le monde semble entre en sa première enfance, Et le plaisir s'y prend avec tant d'innocence Que les plus médisans n'y peuvent rien forger. Dans cet heureux climat, Silvie et son berger Enflammés des ardeurs d'une amour mutuelle, Contre celles du jour cherchent pour s'ombrager L'arbre qui rajunit par une ante nouvelle.

- "Cet arbre ne craint pas qu'on le coupe ou l'esmonde, Son bonheur est cy grand qu'il n'a rien à souffrir; S'il gresle, s'il fait vent, si le tonnerre gronde, C'est pour grossir les fruitz et les faire meurir. Par ses propriétés Dieu fait veoir sa puissance, Il l'a vouleu douer d'une telle excellance Que mesme en le touchant l'on ce peut alléger Du plus cruel des maux qui nous viene affliger, Et ceste qualité qu'il a sy naturelle Fait souhaiter sans cesse au pais étranger L'arbre qui rajunit par une ante nouvelle.
- "Tout le monde est ravi des biens dont il abonde, La terre, l'air, le feu, sont faitz pour le nourrir, Et si l'on veoit ici que l'Océan inonde, C'est afin que cet arbre y puisse refleurir.

 Les cieux lui font tribut et pour recognoissance Versent en sa faveur leur plus douce influance. Tous les ans le printems reviend pour l'obliger; L'esté meurit les fruitz que d'un soin homager L'automne lui présente en offrande immortelle, Et l'hiver rigoreux n'oseroit outrager L'arbre qui rajunit par une ante nouvelle." 1000

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(To be continued)

CHAUCER AND MEDIEVAL HUNTING

TOO little attention has been paid to Chaucer's knowledge of hunting, and to those passages in which it appears in his works. For example, it will be easy to show that some words of specific relation to the pursuit of game have been misunderstood, or inadequately explained. Thus some passages in the poet may be more clearly elucidated. Again, Chaucer's knowledge of hunting is . evidenced by the number of hunting terms used by him. The New English Dictionary cites Chaucer as the first to use the following words or expressions in specific hunting meanings: alaunt, default, dog for the bow, emboss, forlown sb.; foun 'fawn, young deer of first year'; have a course at; lymer 'limmer, lime-hound'; overshoot 'lose the scent'; pricasour 'hunter on horseback'; priking 'tracking the hare'; rechase, ruse vb., slay with strength; sour 'sore, buck of first year'; toret 'swivel.' To these also the great dictionary might have added, as first appearing in Chaucer, find 'discover game sought,' and relay, besides the compounds areat hart, harthunting, master-hunt, and probably great horn, which it does not give at all. In addition, Chaucer uses the hunting terms form 'lair of a hare'; hallow, hamel (hamble); moot (mote); strake forth; sue 'pursue as game'; trist (tryst) 'hunting station.'2

The need of further examination of Chaucer's language of hunting will be apparent from a consideration of the hunting scenes in the *Book of the Duchess*, passages believed to be peculiarly Chaucer's own.⁸ These are especially lines 344-433 and 1311-23.

¹ In Troilus and Creseide i, 46-8 Chaucer uses foun (fown) in the figurative sense of 'new thought, emotion,' a meaning not recorded by the NED.

² It will be seen that most of the words here enumerated are of Old French origin, as the special forms of hunting to which they apply were derived from French hunting practice. The phrases dog for the bow and strake forth are wholly English, while course in have a course at and master (Chaucer's mayster) in master-hunt are French. With strength in slay with strength is the English equivalent of OF. à force.

³ M. Sandras, in Etude sur Chaucer (1859), pointed some slight likeness to certain lines of a French poem in the Collection Monchet II, 106, but offered little proof that Chaucer knew the poem. Skeat thinks the evidence of little value, and from Chaucer's independence of his source in other hunting scenes I think we may here believe he was picturing things as he knew them personally.

The first begins with the preliminaries of the hunt, the hunter blowing "t' assay his horn," the "going up and doun" of "men, hors, houndes, and other thinge," the gossip of the hunting occasion by "al men."

Chaucer's "other thinge" may seem indefinite, but he probably felt he could not further use the elaborate preparations for a king's hunt. Some idea of what they were may be gained from Turbervile's chapter on "How an Assembly should be made in the Presence of a Prince," which he precedes by seventy-two verses on the many details. For example the Butler should bring with him

Some wagons, cartes, some mules or jades yladen till they sweate, With many a medcine made for common queynt diseases, As thirstie throates and typpling tongs, whome Bacchus pype appeases,

besides an astonishing array of viands of various sorts.⁴ The Duke of York's *Master of Game* of about 1400 also tells of the sylvan feast accompanying the hunt in his chapter on "The Assembly" (ch. xxxiii, p. 163), and adds regarding details in ch. xxxvi that there must be "carts also to bring the deer that shall be slain to the place where the curées at hunting have been usually held." All these were doubtless the "other thinge" in Chaucer's mind.

⁴Reference is to chap. 35 in the page for page reprint of George Turbervile's Booke of Hunting (1576) in the Tudor and Stuart Library. The quaint cut in Turbervile gives a good idea of the royal feast in the wood. In the first edition Queen Elizabeth is the central figure with two ladies in waiting just behind her, while all about are evidences of a merry time. When the edition of 1611 was issued the same cut was retained, except that by a curious transformation King James then took the place of Elizabeth before the identical tree of the original, and the ladies in waiting were deftly changed into masculine retainers. See the reproduction of the two cuts side by side in Strutt's Sports and Pastimes.

⁵ In the absence of the promised reprint of the MSS. in *Palaestra*, I have used the edition of the Baillie-Grohmans (Chatto & Windus, 1909). See also ch. xxvi for the numerous preparations preceding the day of the hunt.

The Master of Game (Maystre of the Game) was made by Edward Third's grandson, Edward second Duke of York, about 1406-13. As is well known the book was largely a translation of Le Livre de Chasse by Gaston de Foix, or Gaston Phoebus as he was called from his great beauty. However five chapters of the English book were original, those marked xxii, xxxi, xxxiv-vi in the Baillie-Grohman edition, while there were also in other chapters some changes and some additions by the English author. These are of special value in explaining English, as distinct from French, hunting practice. In quoting the Master of Game, for the purely illustrative purposes of this paper, it has seemed sufficient to use the modernized version of the Baillie-Grohman edition.

The first specific hunting expression used by Chaucer is in the boast of the men as they "speken of hunting,"

How they wolde slee the hert with strengthe.

"Slee the hert with strengthe," or "by strength" as sometimes in the Master of Game, means 'to kill in regular chase with horses and hounds." With strength is the English equivalent of OF. à force, later rendered also by at force, as in Turbervile. The next expression with special hunting meaning, embosed in the further boast of the hunters, needs more extended comment, as I believe. The lines containing it are,

And how the hert had upon lengthe So moche embosed, I not now what,

These lines, and especially the word *embosed*, seem to me to have been wholly misunderstood. Skeat explains *embosed* as

a technical term used in various senses, for which see the New Eng. Dict. Here it means 'so far plunged into the thicket'; In later authors it came to mean 'driven to extremity like a hunted animal'; then 'exhausted by running,' and lastly 'foaming at the mouth' as a result of exhaustion.

Now the meaning which Skeat gives to the word embosed in this passage seems wholly insufficient for the place, and as I think depends upon a misunderstanding of its origin and sense development. Skeat admits that upon lengthe means 'after a long run,' but does not see that 'plunged into a thicket after a long run' would in no sense complete the boast of the hunters, while 'so much plunged into a thicket' would scarcely be good English. The boast of the hunters is properly concluded, however, if we assume Chaucer used embosed in its usual sense when applied to the hunt. They told 'how they would slay the hart with strength, and how the hart had, after a long run, so much exhausted himself (become so much exhausted), or so much foamed at the mouth and thus became flecked with foam in his weary exhaustion,' that he had at last succumbed to their long continued efforts. In other words this is the specific hunting term embosed (embost, embossed), here used for the first time in our literature.

Skeat's error is natural if we follow the NED., on which he

depended, for that excellent work links Chaucer's embosed in this passage with Milton's embost in Samson Agonistes 1700, which it assumes to mean 'plunged into the thicket' and be an otherwise unknown variant of emboskt. The Milton passage, figuring the overthrow of his enemies by the blind and despised Samson, reads as follows:

So Virtue, given for lost,
Depressed and overthrown as seemed,
Like that self-begotten bird
In the Arabian woods embost,—
That no second knows nor third,
And lay erewhile a holocaust,—
From out her ashy womb now teemed,
Revives, reflourishes, then vigorous most
When most unactive deemed.

Now if Milton's embost means 'plunged into the thicket,' the great poet must not only have used a tautological repetition of the idea 'in the Arabian woods,' but also have omitted any similitude to the preceding "given for lost, Depressed and overthrown" of Virtue, and indirectly of Samson. On the other hand, if embost is taken to mean 'worn out, exhausted,' a meaning fully recognized by the NED, in other places, the parallelism with Virtue and Samson is complete. In addition Milton is absolved from using embost when he meant emboskt, a word which he elsewhere uses as we shall see in its more correct form imbosk. The figure, that of an animal wearied out by the hunters and admirably adapted to the enslaved Samson, is here applied to the phoenix at the end of its long life. Such use of embost entirely agrees with the traditional accounts of the phoenix. After her long life in Arabia (sometimes India), in which she had wearied herself to exhaustion, she did not remain in her native land, but flew away to the city of the sun-a necessary part of the myth-where the "holocaust" of Milton took place, and the beginning of a new life. Even the Milton passage is more logical and more effective with the meaning now first proposed.

In other words both the Chaucer and Milton examples belong with those quoted by the NED. from Skelton, Turbervile, Spenser and others, in which there is no idea of 'plunged into a wood,' but

rather some variation of 'wearied, exhausted,' developed from the idea of 'foamed at the mouth, became covered with flecks or bosses of foam from hard running.' To clinch our argument, Milton elsewhere used both *emboss* (*embossed*) 'cover with bosses, be covered with bosses,' and *imbosk* 'hide in the wood, lie in ambush,' probably from Italian *imboscare*. The first is found in *Par. Lost* xii, 180, and *Par. Regained* iv, 119. The second, Milton used in the following sentence of *Reformation in England*, B'k I, where he says of the adversaries of reform: "They seek the dark, the bushy, the tangled forest, they would imbosk." The poet knew both words and used each correctly.

The only other example quoted by the NED. with emboss in the supposed meaning 'plunge into a wood' is this from Butler's Elephant in the Moon 125-30:

An Elephant from one of those Two mighty armies is broke loose, And with the Horrour of the Fight Appears amaz'd, and in a Fright; Look quickly, lest the sight of us Should cause the startled Beast t'imboss.

The satirical skit of Butler is hardly one from which to reason regarding the exact meaning of a word, and had not the Milton passage been misunderstood I doubt whether Butler's use of imboss would have been seriously considered. The preceding quickly would perhaps imply in imboss some such meaning as 'hide, hide oneself,' and if so the word may be a retention of the ME. enbussen beside enbuschen. OF. embussier beside embuscher 'hide in the wood, lie in ambush.' For examples see Mætzner's glossary to the Sprachproben. The form in Butler may be due to confusion with emboss, although imbuss would improve the rime with us. The same etymology would also account for Spenser's emboss in F. Q. I, iii, 24; I, xi, 20; III, i, 64; VI, iv, 40 the etymology of which has been doubtful. The meaning 'hide, conceal oneself' from 'hide in wood' would fit all examples more satisfactorily than has been proposed heretofore. At the same time, 'foam at the mouth, become flecked with foam' would not be wholly unsuitable

⁶ See p. 34 of W. T. Hale's edition in Yale Studies in English.

in the Butler line, or Butler himself may have mistaken the meaning of this unusual word.

The writer of the NED, article on emboss v, 2 'plunge into a thicket' was clearly puzzled by his own etymology-"perhaps from En + OF. bos, bois wood"—for three times he adds explanatory or half-apologetic notes. Of the etymology itself he says, "if so the word is ultimately identical with imbosk v. The development of sense, as suggested below, is strange, but appears to be in accordance with the existing evidence." Under meaning 2 the editor says. "The sense 'drive to a thicket,' required by the etymology suggested above, is not clearly evidenced." And still again, under meaning 3, "The sense 'foam at the mouth' is probably influenced by emboss v. I, as if an 'embossed stag' were one 'studded' with bubbles of foam." 8 With the three examples which once seemed to support the NED.'s etymology otherwise explained, we may well assume that the Middle English hunting term embosen (enbossen) of Chaucer is the OF. embocer (enbosser) 'to swell, rise in bunches or bosses,' then of a deer in the chase 'become exhausted,' as I have pointed out above.

Further proof that 'cover with foam (by hard running)' is the correct meaning of the hunting term is found in Turbervile, who says of the hart (p. 244) "When he is foamy at the mouth we say he is embost." The exact idea is clearer from the fact that Turbervile is enumerating expressions used at various progressive stages of the hunt, and "embost" stands next before "spent or done." Again, the meaning 'wearied, exhausted' is clear from Cotgrave's use of imbossed in defining malmené. Under mené he defines the former as "ill-handled, abused, hardly used; sore layed to; wearied, tired, jaw fallen, imbossed or almost spent as a deer by hard pur-

⁷ The Ct. Dict. proposed for the Spenser passages OF. emboister 'enclose, insert, fasten as in a box,' but that does not seem to me a satisfactory explana-

tion, especially when the earlier enbussen is actually recorded.

⁸ The simpler etymology is to assume at once that emboss 'foam at the mouth' is from the NED.'s emboss v. I meaning 'swell, rise in bunches or bosses.' The further sense development is 'be covered with bunches or bosses of foam from the mouth'; 'foam at the mouth and cover the body (of a hunted deer) with bunches or bosses of foam'; 'be wearied or exhausted from long running, evidenced by such foaming at the mouth and covering of the body with bosses of foam.'



suit." Finally, Chaucer himself again used embossed (enbossed) in up-enbossed hye of the ornamental bars on the red saddle of Dido (Leg. of Good Women 1200), while he also employed the root of OF. embussier (embuscher), ME. embuscher, in embusshements of the Tale of Meliboeus. It is worth noting that OF. embocer (embosser) is not recorded before the sixteenth century, but Chaucer's use of it twice is ample proof of its earlier existence.

To return to the hunting scene in the Book of the Duchess, when Chaucer rode to the field he overtook, as he says,

a great route Of huntes and eek of foresteres.

Huntes is the earlier form of our word hunters of course, but the forester of Chaucer's time was an official more largely connected with hunting than with the preservation of timber, as in more recent times. Thus Manwood tells us (Lawes Forest xxi, §4), "A forester is an officer of the King (or any other man) that is sworn to preserve the Vert and Venison of the forest, and attend upon the wild beasts within his Bailiwick." The name was applied first of all to the master forester, such as Chaucer himself was in 1398 at North Petherton Park, or to the "forester of the Baillie" in which was the forest to be hunted. He was an important character. for the Master of Game explains (ch. xxxvi) that "The master of game should be in accordance with the master forester or parker where it should be that the King should hunt such a day." He should also show the master of game "the King's standing, if the King would stand with his bow, and where the remnant of the bows should stand." Finally he must explain "what game the King would find within the set," that is the part of the forest already set off by men and hounds for the hunt. Under him the master forester had numerous under-foresters, such as was the Knight's yeoman in the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, or that forester of the Physician's Tale (C. T. C. 83), a former poacher who had given up

His likournesse and al his olde [or theves] crafte,

⁹ Turbervile again uses *embost* on p. 103: "If peradventure it happen that the pricker on horsebacke, being at his relaye, should see an Hart of tenne passe by him, and yet heare not the other huntsmen nor their hornes, then let him looke wel whether the Hart be embost or not." The hunter would thus know whether the animal thus seen was the one hunted.

and for this reason.

Can kepe a forest best of any man.

Thus forester (forster) as Chaucer used it was nearly equivalent to modern game-keeper, and quite as important in the medieval hunt.

The hunt of which Chaucer dreamed was not in a park, in which case the procedure would have differed somewhat as the Master of Game informs us in ch. xxxvi, but at a forest-syde, as we learn from line 372 (see also 363). The actual run for the hart was probably in the more open spaces, and possibly in the plains or launds like that of Theseus in the Knight's Tale 833 (C. T. A. 1691). Moreover, the poet dreams explicitly of a King's hunt, such as he had doubtless witnessed many times as chosen valet of Edward III, and later was often to observe in more honorable position. distinctive details of such a hunt, which need not now concern us. take up chapters xxvi and xxxvi of the Master of Game-both original with the English author, and so especially applicable to English usage—and the 35th and 36th of Turbervile's Booke of Hunting. The particular King of the poem, "the emperour Octovien" of 368, "this king" of 1314, is reasonably believed to figure Edward himself who, at fifty-seven or fifty-eight, was still vigorous enough to enjoy his favorite sport.

The next hunting term which Chaucer uses, and was the first to use, although the NED. first cites the Duke of York's Master of Game some thirty years later, is relay or the plural relayes of line 362. This Skeat defines briefly as 'a fresh set of dogs,' but it is properly, as the NED. puts it, "a set of fresh hounds (and horses), posted to take up the chase of a deer in place of those tired out." The last phrase "in place of those tired out" is scarcely justified, for the relay hounds did not so much replace the others as take up the hunt more vigorously.10

Turbervile, in chapter 38 "How to set Relayes," gives an account of the preparations the night before and many details of place and action. The Master of Game (ch. xxxiv) emphasizes the as-

10 The editors of the Master of Game say also that the relay was not let go until both hart and following hounds had passed (see footnote to p. 160, and App. under "relays"), but the text does not seem to me wholly to justify this interpretation, or Turbervile's chapter (38) on Relayes. Certainly not all the pursuing hounds were allowed to pass before the relay was unleashed.

signment of relays—there were usually three at least—"by advice of them that know the country and the flight of the deer," "the readiest hunters and the best footers with the boldest hounds with them" being placed "where most danger is." From him also we know that at every relay there were "two couple of hounds, or three at the most." Thus the relay consisted primarily of men, with hounds in leash to be let go on occasion, but "if the deer be likely to fall among danger," that is run among the herd or to another deer, "it were good to assign some of the horsemen among the relays, to help more readily the hounds if they fall upon the stynt," that is, lose the scent. "Danger" in the hunting sense was the difficulty arising from the hunted deer running among others of its kind, and so confusing the pursuing hounds.

Chaucer's lymere (362, 365), modern limmer or lime-hound, is rightly but not fully explained by Skeat as a "dog held in a liam, lime or leash." When he adds "to be let loose when required," Skeat has mistakenly confused the medieval lymer with the running hounds, while he seems otherwise ignorant of the special duty of this important animal. The lymer was the tracking hound, trained to scent out game for the hunt, to "move" or start it when hunted, and to regain the scent again if it were lost by the running hounds. He was most strictly required to avoid any other than game animals, and especially not to bark or bay when on duty. When tracking he was held by a leash "three fathoms and a half" in length to give him some leeway—"be it ever so wise a limer it sufficeth" "1—but was not otherwise let loose. 12

11 Master of Game, ch. xx, p. 126. Twici explains the use of the lymer more fully by having his questioner ask (Dryden's modernization of the Middle English text p. 20): "'Now I would wish to know how many of the beasts are dislodged by the lymer, and how many of the beasts are found by the braches.' Sir, all those which are chased are dislodged by the lymer; and all those which are hunted up are found by the braches." He has also told us just before that the hare "is chased" and the hart, wolf and boar. So also the Craft of Venery, a MS. of about 1450 (A. Dryden, p. 105): "'Syr, how many bestis ben there enchased?' iiij, the hert, the hare, the bere, the wolfe," where bere is probably an error for bore by the e—o confusion as often in MSS.

¹² See the same ch. xxxiv, p. 174: "For by right the lymer should never out of the rope, though he slip from ever so far." Indeed the oldest hunting treatise in Old French, La Chace dou Serf, written about 1250, advises tying up the lymer, at least while blowing the call for the hounds. In Drycen's translation it reads:

The lymer was of no particular breed, but his training required early separation from the other hounds, intimate association with his master, and long exercise in his particular duties. His lime, or leash, as distinct from the "couple" of a hound, was "made of leather of a horse skin well tawed," although for ornamental purposes it might be of white, or green and white silk, or of white leather.18 It was attached to a collar which might be in later times—probably not for actual hunting—of white or crimson velvet. and even embroidered with pearls. The lime, or leash was fastened to the collar by means of a swivel, or a toret as Chaucer calls it in the Knight's Tale (C. T. A. 2152), and this was sometimes of silver.14 This indicates that a good lymer was a choice dog, affectionately regarded by his master or mistress. Chaucer's use of the plural lymeres is also right in connection with medieval hunting. The lymer which started the game could not be in every place in which a tracking hound might be needed. While his master did follow the hunt as well as he could, other lymers were placed where they were likely to be needed. The Master of Game is explicit in ch. xxxiv, p. 166:

And see that amid the relays, somewhat toward the hindermost relay, especially if it be in danger, that one of the lymerer's pages be there with one of the lymers. And the more danger, the older and the readier and the most tender nosed hound.

When Chaucer says that "at the forest-syde"

Every man did right anon As to hunting fil to doon,

he illustrates with several actions in entire accord with hunting practice. He has, it is true, omitted the usual use of the lymer in

[&]quot;Cross (or pass over) the lair until you have dislodged him [the hart], and then tie your hound [that is the lymer as shown by the preceding sentence] up to a branch, and then you shall blow the call, three long motes, to have your hounds." See a figure of the lymer in A. Dryden's Twici's Le Art de Venerie (p. 95) from a MS. of Gaston de Foix. On the other hand Dryden says in his note 18 (p. 52 of the A. Dryden edition of Twici): "The lymer after the unharbouring, was frequently allowed to join in the pursuit when the pack came up with the huntsman," although I do not so find it in the early treatises.

¹⁸ Mast. of Game, App., under limer.

¹⁴ Madden, Privy Expenses of Princess Mary, in App. to Master of Game.

"moving," or starting the game, perhaps because he had already mentioned that important animal. Besides, the lymer was sometimes not used "if the deer be stirring in the quarter, and have not waited for the moving of the lymer"—Master of Game, ch. xxxiv, p. 167. And again in the chapter "Of the Manner of Hunting when the King will Hunt" (xxxvi), the action begins at once with the blowing of "the three long motes for the uncoupling" by the master of game, Chaucer's mayster-hunte. This, at any rate, is the practice in Chaucer's king's hunt. Following immediately on the lines quoted at the beginning of this paragraph he adds:

The mayster-hunte anoon, fot-hoot, With a gret horne blew three moot At the uncoupling of his houndes.

Perhaps the fot-hoot 'hastily' of Chaucer is intended to indicate the more rapid beginning of the king's hunt in this place, or perhaps the lymer's part is included in the general within a whyl of the next line (378). Here, too, mayster-hunte 'master-hunt' is a technical term later displaced by master of game or master of the hunt, but reappearing in the seventeenth century in the Earl of Monmouth's Boccalini's Advertisements from Parnassus (1656): "Zenophon, Apollos master-hunt." This far earlier use by Chaucer is not recorded in the NED. Probably we should also consider gret horn 'great horn' in this place a technical compound from allusions in the brief original chapter of the Master of Game, ch. xxii "How a Hunter's Horn should be Driven." There the Duke of York tells us,

There are divers kinds of horns, that is to say bugles, great Abbot's, hunter's horns, ruets, small forester's horns, and meaner horns of two kinds. That one kind is waxed with green wax and greater of sound, and they be best for good hunters.

Just what were the "great abbots," as I judge the name should be written, is not clear, but the distinction between great and small horns is evident enough. The brief chapter closes with another reference to small horns:

As for horns for fewterers and woodmen I speak not, for every small horn and other mean horn unwaxed be good enough for them.

It may be added that Gower also uses *grete hornes* in speaking of Actæon's hunt (*Conf. Amant.* I, 343), the term having no source in the original Latin.

If there were space it would be interesting to consider more exactly the difficult word moot (376), usually defined as 'a note upon a horn' (Skeat's glossary), without more specific and correct reference to hunting language. At least that moot is not wholly equivalent to a single note seems indicated by Turbervile. Among his several "measures for blowing" he pictures that of "the uncoupling of the coverte side" as a succession of four-four-twoone notes, "to be blowen with three windes," that is repeated three times. I wonder whether moot (mot) is not one or more notes blown with one breath, or wind, a more or less complicated blast of the horn, as would seem to be indicated by other of Turbervile's "Measures of blowing set downe in the notes for the more ease and ready help of such as are desirous to learne the same." 15 One regrets that the Duke of York did not fulfil his promise to write "a chapter that shall be of all blowing," that is of all kinds (see p. 170). Of course there is always a possibility that the "measures" differed in different periods. In any case Chaucer is using the hunting term correctly, as well as the specific signal three moot, for the uncoupling of the running hounds in actual pursuit of the deer. On the other hand, the earliest use of the term, as cited by the NED., is by Chaucer's Northern contemporary the author of Sir Gawain and the Green Knight.16

"The uncoupling of the houndes" at the blowing of the "three moot" is followed by three actions indicated by three technical words, two of which occur in Chaucer for the first time, although the NED. gives him credit for the earliest use of one only. These actions are the finding, hallowing, and rechasing of the deer, indicated by Chaucer's y-founde, y-halowed, and rechased. The "finding" of the hart refers not to the starting of him by the lymer, but to the discovery by the hounds themselves after he has begun to run. For

18 See the plates at the close of the book.

¹⁶ Chaucer is quite in accord with the Duke of York's direction (Mast. of Game ch. xxxvi, p. 190): "And when the king is at his standing or at his tryste, whichever he prefers, and the master of game or his lieutenant have set the bows and assigned who shall lead the Queen to her tryste, then he shall blow the three long motes for the uncoupling."

this purpose certain hounds were especially set apart, as indicated by the Master of Game (ch. xxxiv, p. 167):

And always should the yeoman berner [the man in charge of the hounds], the which is ordained to be the finder, follow the lymer and be as nigh him as he might with the raches [the running hounds] that he leadeth for the finding.

And again in the same place,

But now to come again to the lymer, it is to wit that when the lymer hath moved him, if the lymerer shall see him he shall blow a mote and rechase, and if the deer be soule [that is, alone] the berners shall uncouple all the finders.¹⁷

The hallow (halloo), which is connected with the verb used by Chaucer, is not specifically treated by the Duke of York, although frequently mentioned. Turbervile, on the other hand, in chap. 13. p. 31, tells us that the hounds must be taught "to know the Hallowe as well by the horne as by the mouth." Then follows a description of the manner of teaching them. The hallow was distinct from the hunting cries, or words of encouragement or caution, which are given here and there in both the Master of Game and Turbervile's Booke of Hunting. See the Appendix to the former under "Hunting Cries." The verb hallow in specific hunting meaning occurs first in Cursor Mundi (15833), although there in a figurative sense, Chaucer seems to have first used it in an actual hunting scene. The first use of the noun hallowing in the same sense is in Sir Gawain and the Green Knight, probably composed a few years before the Book of the Duchess.18 Chaucer's v-halowed, then, from OF. haloer (halouer), means specifically 'to set on the dogs with the hallow (halloo)' after the "finding."

¹⁷ Turbervile does not explicitly mention the finder or finders, but explains the action in this way on p. 106: "Then when the Prince or Master of the game is come, and the houndes for the crie, all the horsemen must quickly cast abrode about the covert, to discover ye Harte when he rowzeth and goeth out of his hold, yt they may the better know him afterward by the cote and by his head." On the next page he has the expression, "Until ye Deare be descried and rightly marked."

¹⁸ It is noteworthy that the hunting cries given in the Master of Game are still in most cases in their Old French form, although Chaucer, thirty years earlier, used some of them in the English of his Leg. of Good Wom. 1213. In Turbervile the English terms are always used.

The third action of the hunt following the uncoupling of the hounds is indicated by Chaucer's rechased, on which Skeat has the following note: "Headed back. Men were posted at various places to keep the hart within bounds." Few of Skeat's notes are more Etymologically rechase did mean 'chase back or again,' but rechased faste Longe tyme can not mean 'chased back a long time,' but rather 'chased, pursued, hunted fast a long time,' the prefix re- having here no more force than in receive, request. It is true that, especially in contrast with chase, the word did have the meaning of 'chase back or again,' as shown by examples in the NED., but not in this place or many others that might be cited, as often in the Master of Game. Again, in medieval hunting the word had the derivative meaning 'to blow the measure indicating the chase or hunt, to rally and take up the hunt,' and this, accompanied by the action of pursuit is the meaning in the Master of Game. The call to rechase (rechace) was blown "when the lymer hath moved him" [the hart or other game] (p. 168); when the deer has passed a relay and the hounds of the relay take up the hunt (p. 160); when, after trying every device to escape, the deer finally stands at bay and the last onset is made (p. 173).

The NED, is wrong here also in giving the meaning to Chaucer's rechase—the first citation of the word—'to chase (a deer) back into the forest.' The second quotation, one from Caxton's Jason (EETS ed. p. 23), should have shown rechased was used in the simple sense of 'pursued.' There, rechased his enmyes unto nyghe by the poste means no more than chaced hem unto the grete poste of the preceding paragraph. In the Craft of Venery also (MS. of about 1450 in A. Dryden's Twici, p. 107) we have: "When he (the hare in this case) is stert, thou schalt rechase apon the houndez iii times;" that is, give the call of rechase (rechace) to urge on the houndes.

It should be noted that rechase has the same meaning and use in hunting as Norman French recheat, which from 'take back or again' had come to mean 'take to oneself, assemble, rally,' with disregard of the re- in most cases. Not used by Chaucer it appears in the contemporaneous Sir Gazvain and the Green Knight, with the same idea of 'rallying to pursue the game.' There, the shortened

rechated means 'rallied to pursue' the boar when he has broken from covert (1446), when he has again been driven from bay (1466), and in the form rechatande 'rallying, sounding the rally' for the hunters at the death of the fox (1911). For this word recheat (rechat, rechet) the NED. gives the correct meaning as a noun in 'the act of calling together the hounds [properly men and hounds] to begin or continue the chase of the stag [or other game], or at the close of the hunt.' Turbervile figures this rechate in his "measures for blowing." For the signal itself in the body of his Booke he uses "blow for the hounds" (p. 108), or "blowe a Rechate to their houndes to comforte them" (p. 111).

There remain to be explained two parts of the action in Chaucer's hunting scene. On rused (381) Skeat has no note, but his glossary misleads by his 'roused herself, rushed away' for this place. The NED. gives the correct meaning and etymology 'to make a detour or other movement in order to escape from the hounds,' OF. ruser, with this Chaucer quotation first. The word is frequent in the Master of Game, as in chapters iii, v, xxxi, among others. The hart has turned suddenly from his course to throw the hounds from the track. Doubtless something like that described in the Master of Game (ch. iii, p. 31) has taken place: "He maketh a ruse on some side, and there he stalleth or squatteth until the hounds be forth." Or it may be he had let the hounds and hunters pass, and then doubled upon his track and run back the way he came. In any case, the hart "stal away . . . a prevy way," as Chaucer puts it. 19

The hart's ruse results in a second action of the hunt at this point. The running hounds do not at first perceive the deer's change, "overshoot" the scent, and so lose it for a time. Besides, in overshote (383) of this realistic scene, Chaucer again uses for the first time another hunting term in its technical sense. This he follows by still another technical word of the hunt when he adds of the hounds, they "were on a defaute y-falle," the first example of default in its hunting sense in our literature. Skeat defines the phrase

¹⁹ The Master of Game deals with ruses of the hart in the same chapter "Of the Hart and his Nature," especially on p. 30 where he begins "An old hart is wonder wise and felle ('cunning') for to save his life." Turbervile, in chap. 40 "Certaine observations and suttleties to be used by Huntesmen in hunting an Harte at force," mentions many "suttleties" of the hart to escape his pursuers, and the procedure in such cases.

on a defaute y-falle as 'had a check,' and the Master of Game regularly uses the native expression on a stynt 'at a stop' (pp. 169, 170), and fall upon the stynt (p. 165). The hunting game is temporarily at a standstill. The hounds, it is true, would soon perceive that the scent was lost, and would go about, often aimlessly, to find it. If they fail, as they must have done in this case, the lymer, or tracking hound must be brought up to find the scent again and put the running hounds "to rights." That the hunt was temporarily stayed at this time is clear from the lines which follow at once:

Therwith the hunte, wonder faste, Blew a forloyn at the laste.

The word forloyn has been almost as badly treated as Chaucer's embosed of this passage. The NED. says 'a note of recall,' with this use in Chaucer as the first quotation. Skeat says, with less certitude, 'a recall (as I suppose; for it was blown when the hounds were all a long way off their object of pursuit).' He follows this with a none too clear quotation from the Book of St. Albans. In fact the Book of St. Albans illustrates only one of several meanings of the word. Etymologically forloyn, OF. fort + logne, is an adverb, meaning as Cotgrave gives it 'verie farre off (a hunting term).' Often, perhaps usually, the derived noun meant that the hounds were far off the scent, away from the hunted animal, as also the measure blown on the horn to indicate that fact—the use in this place. But forloyn might mean that one hound, with the deer, had outstripped all the others, as indicated by the verb in this passage from Turbervile (p. 245):

When a hound meeteth a chase [that is a hunted animal] and goeth away with it farre before the rest, then we say he forloyneth. Again, if a hunter had lost track of the chase, or as the *Master of Game* says (p. 173), if he have

been at any time out of hearing of hound and horn, he should have blown the forloyn; . . . and whoso first heard him so blow should have blown to him the 'perfect,' if it be so that he were in his rights;

that is, on the right track of the hunted animal. All these meanings,

it will be seen, easily go back to the adverbial 'verie farre off' of Cotgrave and Old French, here become a noun forloyn.

Light is thrown on the development of meaning by that of the ME. verb forloinen. This meant transitively 'to leave very far off, to forsake,' and intransitively—doubtless the earlier—'be very far off, stray, err.' Both transitive and intransitive uses occur in the Clannesse of Chaucer's contemporary. Further illustrations of the forloyn may be cited from the English Twici (A. Dryden, p. 23), which also gives the signal on the horn:

And afterwards, when they are gone ahead of you, you ought to call in the manner as I tell you; you ought to blow trout, trout, trout-rourout, trout, trout, trourourout, trourourout, trourourout, trourourout, thunter, why do you blow in that manner?' Because I was on my right [line, or course], and the Hart is unharboured, and I do not know what has become of the hounds, nor of the company; and for this I blow in that manner. 'And what chase do we call this?' We call that chase the chase of Forloyng.

So the Craft of Venery (A. Dryden, p. 108):

And when he [the hart] is fer fro me y schall blow in other maner, & that is this, trout, trout, trororout, trout, trout, trororout, trororororout, v tymes this last mote. 'Syre huntere, whi blowest thou thus?' For as muche as y have no knowyng, but am al uncerten where the hert is bycome, & y wote never where myn houndez bun bycom, ne the men, & therfore y woll blow in this maner. . . . 'Syre, what maner chace clepe that?' We clepen it chace forloyne.

In the passage before us it is the deer that has stolen away, the dogs that are very far off, and forloyn the signal means that a check, stynt, or default has resulted. Chaucer himself interpreted the situation in lines 539-41:

'Sir,' quod I, 'this game is doon; I holde that this hert is goon,— Thise huntes conne him nowher see.'

The forloyn, therefore, is not strictly a recall, as Skeat surmized and the NED. says with confidence. How entirely the forloyn indicated a check or delay in the hunt is clear from Turbervile (p. 108):

If it shoulde happen that the Harte, turning counter uppon the houndes in the thicket, had come amongest chaunge, then let all the

huntesmen menace and rate their houndes, and couple them up againe untill they have gone backe eyther to the layre, or to [the] last blemish made upon any Slotte or viewe [that is, of the hart], and so hunt on againe untill they may finde the Harte.

If the difficulty were great the lymer was called up, as I have said, the lymerer having followed the chase in the more open ground, according to Turbervile in the same chapter, "to helpe them at default if neede require." The *Master of Game* is equally explicit regarding the check to the hunt (p. 170):

And if it be great danger (that is, a serious default as the context shows), they ought to blow a mote for the lymer and let him sue till he hath retrieved him, or else till he hath brought him [the hunted hart] out of danger [that is, out from among the other deer].

It may be assumed that when a check resulted from the loss of the scent in any other way, the procedure was essentially the same.

The discussion so far shows that Chaucer was describing the hunting scene in the Book of the Duchess with much more of realism than has usually been supposed. How then must we understand his further account, the dropping of the hunt for a considerable time, and the return to it at the close of the poem? Now there is no evidence that Chaucer was actively engaged in the hunt. Skeat, it is true, explains my tree of line 387 by saying, Chaucer "dreamed that he was one of the men posted to watch which way the hart went, and to keep the bounds." This seems to me wholly impossible, since it would imply an almost menial service for a king's valet. Indeed, the Master of Game (p. 188) tells us explicitly that the "stable," or men set to keep the boundaries, were "set by the foresters or parkers," and must themselves have been under-foresters or woodmen. Nor is there any indication that Chaucer was an attendant of the king in this king's hunt, 20 since in that case he

²⁰ Such a position would have been entirely proper for Chaucer in 1369, but would have made impossible such freedom of action as he had planned for his poem. Besides, the *Master of Game* (p. 190) shows that special care was taken for the disposition of the king and queen with their attendants:

"For it is to be known that the attendants of his [the king's] chamber and of the queen's should be best placed, and the two fewterers ought to make fair lodges of green boughs at the tryste to keep the king and the queen and the ladies and gentlewomen, and also the greyhounds, from the sun and bad weather."



could not have been free to act as he did. We must assume he dreamed of being an unattached observer, and meant by "my tree" merely the one at which he had stationed himself to view the hunt as an on-looker. Since the *forloyn*, or check, in the hunt has occurred—a check that might even mean the end of the hunt for that day—Chaucer feels free to wander off through the wood. The *forloyn* is thus used in the poem for an artistic purpose.

May I pause to note in this relation Professor Kittredge's explanation of "the quality of artlessness or naïvete" in the Book of the Duchess (Chaucer and his Poetry, ch. ii) as a sort of "dream psychology," an explanation that has continued to seem very attractive. Here Professor Kittredge applies it particularly to the lack of further reference to the horse on which Chaucer rode to the forest-syde, and to the whelp which, the poet says, "cam by me," fauned me as I stod," and ran away when he tried to catch it. The minute accuracy of Chaucer's description of the hunt perhaps suggests some modification of a most interesting exposition. Reference to Turbervile would seem to show that horsemen were regularly supplied with pages for their horses, and that they often took up their positions on foot. Thus (p. 101-2) horsemen of the relay

shall place their houndes in some faire place at the foote of some tree, forbiding [that is bidding] the varlet that he uncouple them not without their knowledge and commaundement. . . . Then shall they go three or foure hundreth paces from thence on that side that the hunting is ordeined, and shall hearken if they heare any thing or can discover the Harte. . . . As also the horseman shall withdraw himselfe aside for another reason. And that is because the pages and they which holde the horses do commonly make such a noyse that he can not heare the crye.

Perhaps Chaucer felt he could not make poetic material of such a page as he must have had in this age of many servants.

The incident regarding the young hound,

That hadde y-followed and coude no good,

is somewhat different. A young hunting hound was too valuable to be lost, as shown by the discussion of the various kinds of hunt-Under such circumstances, Chaucer a king's attendant could not have withdrawn, even for the sorrows of a prince. ing dogs and their elaborate care in the Master of Game and Turbervile. Young hounds, too, naturally trained with the old dogs as Turbervile tells us on p. 36, were also sometimes employed in the regular hunt, as implied on p. 103. Now the blowing of the forloyn, as already indicated, meant the coupling of the hounds. It was the most natural thing, therefore, that the poet, seeing such a hound running loose "wolde han caught hit," not perhaps as Professor Kittredge assumes "to take him up in his arms," 21 but to turn over to some keeper for coupling up until the hounds were again let loose on the track of the hart. On the other hand, Chaucer's whelp was to run away for a particular purpose, leading the poet into a deep forest away from the hunt, and finally to a prince of the blood. When he came upon the latter, clearly in distress, even a valuable hound might be disregarded.

Before this latter event leads Chaucer, somewhat tardily as in his early manner, to the real subject of the poem, he was to give some further evidence of acquaintance with hunting terms. Along with the native names of the deer he sees in the wood—the hert, hind, buck, doe, roe—Chaucer uses for the first time in our literature, so far as the NED. quotations indicate, the Anglo-French foun (OF. faon) 'fawn, young deer of the first year,' and sour 'sore, a buck of the fourth year.' Moreover, whether Chaucer was the first to use these words or not, we can hardly believe he did not employ them in their exact hunting significance.

When Chaucer came upon the "man in blak," whom we know as John of Gaunt the bereaved husband of Blanche of Lancaster, the hunt is entirely put aside for a time. It would have been distracting to us as to them if either poet or prince, in the interview which follows, should have been interrupted by hunting horns or hunting cries, by renewal of the chase, or by the clamor of hunts-

²¹ Quite possible for a running hound (ratch) if a kenet, but not likely with a greyhound or other variety of hunting dog.

²² Chaucer again used foun (fown) in Troilus and Creseide I, 465-8, where it has the figurative meaning of 'a new thought, or emotion conceived.' The passage reads:

Ne in him desyr noon othere fownes bredde But arguments to this conclusioun, That she on him wolde han compassioun.

This use of the word is not recorded in the NED.

men or hounds at the death. Yet, from the later reference we are now to discuss, it must be clear that the hunt went on. The ruse of the hart may be conceived to have led the hunters some distance away, or the poet's walk through the wood may have taken him far enough to be undisturbed. This is in entire accord with hunting possibilities, quite apart from the poet's right to subordinate the minor to the major action.

In the abrupt close of the poem, when the poet—for poetic purposes less quick than he must have been in life—finally understands the great loss of his patron and friend, the hunt is again introduced in the following lines:

> And with that worde, right anoon They gan to strake forth; al was doon For that tyme, the hert-hunting.

On these lines Skeat has no comment, but *strake* is defined in his glossary as 'move, proceed,' with reference to this place, the only occurrence in Chaucer apparently.²⁸ Doubtless *strake forth* has

²³ The etymology of strake is difficult, as indicated by the NED. The special difficulty lies in the fact that we have not only a ME. strong verb striken with past tenses strōke and strōke, but two ME. weak verbs strāken—strōked and strōken—strōked, all with essentially the same meanings: 1) 'to go, move, proceed'; 2) 'to sound a horn (sometimes at least indicating movement).' The first, or strong verb is clearly OE. strīcan 'strike,' with an irregular past strāke beside the regular strōke, as we have today another irregular past struck in the same verb. For the strāke form cf. drave beside drove, even in Elizabethan English. These are not Nth. forms, since they clearly belong to the South as shown by many references. They may be shortened forms of the OE. pasts drāf, strāc.

Of strake wk., with the meaning 'sound upon a horn,' the NED. says "of obscure origin." It regards the word as a hunting term only, failing to include strake 'go, proceed' of Piers Plowman's Crede 82, or even this Chaucer example. For its etymology I suggest an unrecorded OE. wk. vb. stracan 'cause to go,' with derived intransitive meaning making it parallel in purport with OE. stracan. Such a stracan by shortening of the root vowel would give ME. strake, as OE. wrac f. 'vengeance' with similar phonology gave ME. wrache.

The wk. stroke, with meanings similar to those of the other verbs as in Master of Game pp. 194-5, is probably a descendant of OE stracian 'stroke,' with special derived senses perhaps influenced by the other verbs. Such at least is a consistent and possible scheme for these difficulty words.

Incidentally, the NED. puts Malory's use of strake (Morte D'Arth. X, lii) under the noun, such a noun as does occur in Turbervile under "Measures of Blowing" and elsewhere. Malory's example, however, is the infinitive of the verb. To Sir Tristrem is attributed the origin of all "measures of blowing,"

here the broader sense of 'proceed homeward,' as shown by the context. The hunt has ended for the day. Yet the abrupt transition from prince and poet to the hunters of lines 345–386—they of line 1312 must refer to the latter—requires some further explanation. How are the hunters and the king himself (1314) brought into more immediate contact with the somewhat distant poet? Or how had the hunt gone on, as we must believe it did, without disturbing the colloquy between the poet and the "man in blak," and yet now becomes evident to both?

The explanation is in the second meaning of strake, well authenticated by examples in our literature, although not given by Skeat. Just as rechase, recheat (rechate), and forloyn mean both the act itself and the corresponding signal upon the hunter's horn, so strake means not only 'proceed, go homeward,' but 'sound the signal for proceeding,' in this case going home after the killing of the hart. The situation is explained by this passage from the Master of Game (ch. xxxiv, pp. 178-9):

And when there is nought left [that is after the rewarding of the hounds] then shall the lord, if he wishes, or else the master of the game or in his absence whoso is greatest next him stroke in this wise, that is to say blow four motes and stynt not half an Ave Maria, and then blow other four motes a little longer than the first four motes. And thus should no wight stroke but when the hart is slain with strength. And when one of the aforesaid hath thus blown, then should the grooms couple up the hounds and draw homeward fair and soft. And all the rest of the hunters should stroke in this wise: "Trut, trut, tro-ro-row, tro-ro-row," and four motes all of one length, not too long and not too short. And otherwise should no hart hunter stroke from thenceforth till they go to bed.²⁴

That such signaling was kept up on the journey home is not only and these are enumerated as follows: "First to the uncoupling, to the seeing, to the rechate, to the flight, to the death, and to strake." Here to strake, not to the strake it will be noticed, is the measure blown as the hunters set out homeward after the hunt, the meaning derived from the literal one of going homeward itself. To strake also meant 'to proceed to the field,' or 'from covert to covert,' as shown by Turbervile's "measures" which gives the accompanying signals upon the horn. In Malory, too the rechate can not be a 'recall' as ordinarily defined, but the rallying to the chase as I have defined it.

24 This passage is one of the chapters original with the Duke of York, and

thus clearly gives the English as distinct from the French practice.

implied by the Master of Game, but clearly stated in Sir Gawain and the Green Knight 1363-4 and 1922-3. I quote the latter:

And penne pay helden to home, for hit watz nies nyst, Strakande ful stoutly in hor store hornez.

Thus the noise of the hunt, which has been going on at a distance, again comes within hearing of the poet, and the character of the measure heard shows that the hunt is over for the day.²⁶

Again, another measure on the horn indicated that the king would hunt no more, as the *Master of Game* explains (ch. xxxvi, pp. 194-5):

And if the King will hunt no more then should the master of his game, if the King will not blow, blow a mote and stroke with a mote in the middle. And the sergeant, or whoso bloweth next him and no man else, should blow the first mote but only the middle, and so every man as often as he likes to stroke, if they have obtained that which they have hunted for. And the middle mote should not be blown save by him that bloweth next the master. And thereby may men know, as they hear men stroke homeward, whether they have well sped or not.

Thus Chaucer, still in the wood with the sorrowing prince, but hearing the appropriate signal for the return after the hunt, could add the lines beginning,

With that methoughte that the king Gan [quikly] homeward for to ryde.

Thus, too, unity is given to the poem, not only through the character of the interview between the poet and prince, but through an entirely proper and explainable return to the hunt with which the dream began.

The castle to which the king rode was, as we know, a dream castle, the description playing upon the names of John of Gaunt, Lancaster, Blanche, and the Richmond connected with both John and his duchess in the period when the poem was written.²⁰ The

²⁸ Turbervile figures "A strake of nyne, to drawe home the companie. With twoo windes."

²⁶ In speaking of it as a dream castle I do not mean that there may not have been reminiscences of an actual castle or castles which Chaucer may have known. See Tupper in Mod. Lang. Notes xxxi, 250, 442; xxxii, 54.

castle suggested the bell, the stroke of twelve, and Chaucer awoke at midnight, to find the book he had been reading and resolve upon

making his most important early poem.

One minor bit of possible realism remains to be mentioned. hunt of which Chaucer dreamed is placed in May. Now the frequent use of May by the medieval poets is known to have been to some extent a convention. Here, for example, if the Book of the Duchess was written in 1360 as usually assumed, the opening of the scene in May must have been merely conventional. Yet it is not impossible that the poem was not composed before the spring of 1370. John of Gaunt was not home from command of the French expedition until November. If he requested Chaucer to write the poem, as Professor Kittredge suggests, the composition could not have been undertaken until late in the year, and the completion of the poem may well have reached into 1370. Or possibly the request of the bereaved husband was not made in the ecstacy of his grief, but some months after the Duchess Blanche had passed away. Be that as it may, the hunting of the hart in the month assigned may have had a realistic basis. The Master of Game (ch. iii, p. 35) informs us:

The harts have more power to run well from the entry of May into St. John's tide [June 24] than at any other time; for then they have put on new flesh and new hair and new heads for [that is, on account of] the new herbs and the new coming out of trees and of fruits, and be not too heavy. For as yet they have not recovered their grease, neither within nor without, nor their heads, wherefore they be much lighter and swifter.

There is therefore some reason to believe Chaucer was as realistic in this as in other respects, when describing the hunting scene of this poem.

Nor is it wholly impossible Chaucer has introduced still another realistic touch in his May hunt. The early failure of the hounds to keep the scent, the ease with which the hart had succeeded in his ruse, may have some relation to the time in which the hunt is placed. In the chapter "Of Running Hounds and their Nature," the Master of Game informs us that keeping the scent was more difficult in this very period. He says (ch. xiv, p. 112):

Also the hounds scent worse from May until St. John's time than in any other time of all the year, for as I shall say the burnt heath and the burning of fields taketh the scent from the hounds of the beasts that they hunt. Also in that time the herbs be best, and flowers in their smelling, each one in their kind, and when the hounds hope to scent the beast that they hunt, the sweet smelling of the herbs takes the scent of the beast from them.

I make no attempt to press these latter points, but it must be admitted the coincidence of these two characteristics of a May hunt might have had its basis in the same realism that has seemed so clear in the whole description of the hunting scene in the Book of the Duchess, and the realism that will appear in other passages in Chaucer's poetry still to be discussed.

The lines/in the Book of the Duchess are the most explicit of those in which Chaucer deals with hunting. Yet here and there in other places are shorter passages relating to the subject, and in them some technical terms of the hunt, so that these also warrant some words of interpretation. The most considerable of these references are in the Knight's Tale which, although based on Boccaccio's Teseide, shows great freedom in the use of its source. Indeed, in the parts of the Tale with which I shall deal there are scarcely more than hints of the original. Chaucer has represented hunting as he knew it in his native land.

For example, in lines 780-88 (C. T. A. 1638-46), the allusion to Arcite's likeness to a lion, as he comes to fight with Palamon, is made more specific in relation to northern latitudes by addition of the bear.²⁷ The scene is then worked out more realistically as an actual hunting incident by the introduction of the spear, the standing at the gap in the wood (gappe, twice mentioned) through which the bear—him of 793 must refer to that animal rather than to the lion—comes rushing.

And breketh bothe bowes and the leves.

From him there is now no escape, and hunter or hunted must succumb as Arcite makes clear by his remark. So, to the likeness of Palamon to a lion and Arcite to a tiger in the fight, Chaucer has added, in line 800-1 (C. T. A. 1658-9), the realistic figure that would appeal to Englishmen more readily:

²⁷ Compare Teseide B'k vii, st. 106, 119.

As wylde bores gonne they to smyte, That frothen whyte as foom for ire wood.

A still more important passage for which there is little basis in the *Teseide* (K. T. 815-37, C. T. A. 1673-95) ²⁸ describes the coming of Theseus, the mighty hunter,

For after Mars he serveth now Diane.

One can but wonder, from the applicability of the whole scene, whether this is not also a reminiscence of Edward III and his characteristic fondness for war and hunting. In this passage we first meet the hunting term grete hert 'great hart, hart worthy to be hunted,' a compound not recognized by Skeat and the NED. but frequent in the Master of Game and not uncommon in other places. For instance chapters xxiii—v of the Master of Game all deal with "How a Man should know a Great Hart," and the following quotation (p. 131) indicates the specific use:

And also if a man find such a hart [a 'great hart and no old one' as already described], and men ask him what hart it is, anay answer that it is a hart chaceable of ten that should not be refused.

The compound is again used by Chaucer in line 823, when he mentions the "joye and appetyt" of Theseus,

To been himself the grete hertes bane.29

Attention has already been called to the May time as one peculiarly appropriate for hunting the hart, so that it is not strange Theseus was especially "desirous" of hunting "the grete hert in May." Thus there is no lack of realism in his pursuing his own

28 See Teseide v, 77-8. The scene in its distinctive references is practically all Chaucer's.

²⁰ The NED. gives to great, under 7, the meaning 'grown up, full grown,' but cites first a quotation from Caxton's Charles the Great. The use in the above compound falls under that meaning, and the example in Chaucer is one of the earliest I have found. Compare also Destr. of Troy 13557:

A grete herte in a grove, goond hym one;

and Gower, Conf. Amant. I, 2299,

The grete hert anon was founde.

Turbervile (ch. 37, p. 100) has great deer in the same sense: "But if he find Slot that seem of a great Deare, he may say a Hart of ten without any addition of words."

purpose, and still coming upon Arcite and Palamon, the former of whom had gone out for another reason,

> For to doon his observaunce to May, Remembring on the poynt of his desyre.

Again, it is perhaps a knowledge of English hunting that made Chaucer represent Theseus as riding "to the launde," or plain,

For thider was the hert wont have his flight.

This, at least, would fit in with what the Master of Game tells us in chapter iii, p. 36:

And all the time from rutting time [middle of Sept. to middle of Oct.] into Whitsunday great deer and old will be found in the plains.

The "clothed al in grene" of line 828, applying to Theseus, the Queen and Emily and for which there is nothing in the original *Teseide*, is doubtless another realistic touch of Chaucer's time. By the time of Turbervile hunting dress seems to have changed or been less regarded, but his reference to the matter is proof of the earlier custom: He says in chap. 38, p. 101:

Phoebus ³⁰ sayth that they ought to be clad in greene when they hunt the Hart or Bucke, and in russet when they hunt the Bore, but that is of no great importance, for I remitte the coloures to the fantasies of men.

In the same passage of the *Knight's Tale* also occurs the specific hunting phrase "han a cours . . . with houndes," that is 'have a run (at a hart) with hounds,' for which this Chaucer quotation is the first cited by the *NED*.

In lines 1290-94 (C. T. A. 2148-52) Chaucer is responsible for introducing the English hunting dogs, the "whyte alaunts" "as

⁸⁰ Gaston de Foix, called from his manly beauty Gaston Phoebus, wrote the Livre de Chasse on which the Duke of York's Master of Game was based.

The Knight's "yeman" in the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales (100 ff.), whom Chaucer guesses to be "a forster" and is shown to be a hunter by his bow and arrows, his horn and "bawdrik," has also his "cote and hood of grene." So the apparently similar "gay yeman" of the Friar's Tale (C. T. D. 1380 ff.), besides his similar bow and arrows, has his "courtepy of grene," while his hat was probably also of that color, though "with frenges blake."

grete as any steer," 31 to the description of which the Master of Game gave chapter xvi. He confirms Chaucer regarding their color by saying (p. 116):

And though there be alauntes of all hues, the true hue of a good alaunte, and that which is most common, should be white, with black spots about the ears.

That the *mozel* 'muzzle' of 1293 was also important for such an animal, the chapter fully implies, especially the sentence,

In all manner of ways alauntes are treacherous and evil understanding, and more foolish and more harebrained than any other kind of hound.

Such traits the author confirms by saying, "For men have seen alauntes slay their masters." The "colors of gold" on the alaunts are quite in accord with what we have been told of those sometimes placed on valuable lymers. The "torets," a word first used by Chaucer, were swivels to allow free play of the leash as already explained, not 'small rings on the collar of a dog' as in Skeat's glossary. One further touch of English hunting interests occurs in describing the feast given by Theseus, before the tournament, to Palamon, Arcite and their supporters from many countries. This feast the poet refrains from describing at length, but among other details alludes to

⁸¹ On this passage A. S. Cook has an elaborate and interesting note in "The Last Months of Chaucer's Earliest Patron" (Trans. of Conn. Acad. of Arts and Sciences xxi, 128 ff.). He there suggests that Chaucer first saw alaunts at the wedding feast of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, in Milan June 5, 1368. Apart from the uncertainty about Chaucer's being at that feast, the suggestion rests on the idea that there could have been no alaunts in England before 1381 when the Knight's Tale was written. The latter fact seems to me as unlikely as that there were no lymers in England before Chaucer wrote the Book of the Duchess, because Chaucer in that poem is the first to have used the name in English. At any rate our main purpose here is to point out that the allusion to the alaunts is original with Chaucer, and that it apparently falls in with his considerable knowledge of medieval hunting.

32 Skeat does refer to the other form of the word, turet found in the description of the Astrolabe, and a note by Warton "which seems to make the word equivalent to a swivel." The NED. defines it clearly as 'a swivel ring on a dog's collar." The word toret (turet) 'little tower' had acquired this secondary meaning because the ring was set and moved in a little tower-like structure fixed in the collar itself. For these two examples in Chaucer the meaning should be,

'a swivel ring set in a tower-like form.'

What haukes sitten on the perche above, What houndes liggen on the floor adoun,

as they perhaps often did in Edward Third's castle halls. The *Teseide* (vi, st. 8) mentions hounds, falcons, goshawks, but the scene in this and other particulars is essentially English.

A brief hunting scene occurs in the Franklin's Tale (C. T. F. 1189-97), where Aurelius is shown by the magician:

Forestes, parkes ful of wilde deer; Ther saugh he hertes with hir hornes hye,— He saugh of hem an hondred slayn with houndes, And somme with arwes blede of bittre woundes.

Then follow three lines devoted to hawking, with which we are not dealing in this paper. The hunting part is true to English practice, deer being run down by the hounds or killed by bowmen stationed at various places along the course of the hunt. Of the use of the bow La Chace dou Serf tells us (Dryden's translation, p. 130):

Make your variets carry bows, for no one ought to kill the hart with a sword after he is frayed [that is, after the hart's antiers are well grown, implying full growth of the animal]. I advise you that you shoot from afar.

The Franklin himself, it will be remembered (Prol. 347-8),

After the sondry sesons of the yeer So chaunged he his mete and his soper,

a change doubtless partly dependent upon hunting.

Among significant references to hunting in the Canterbury Tales one must not forget the description of the Monk, since with total disregard of the canons of the church,

He yaf nat of that text a pulled hen, That seith that hunters been nat holy men.³⁸

He was, we remember (Prol. 166-92),

An out-rydere that lovede venerye;

Therefore he was a pricasour aright; Grehoundes he hadde as swifte as fowel in flight;

³³ Compare my article "Some of Chaucer's Lines on the Monk," Mod. Phil. i, 105. Of priking and of hunting for the hare Was al his lust, for no cost wolde he spare.

Here pricasour, for which Chaucer is alone responsible, whatever its exact etymology must mean 'huntsman,' as the NED. suggests with a 'perhaps,' rather than merely a 'hard rider' as Skeat defines it. So priking is not simply 'riding,' but 'riding in the hunt,' and here more specifically 'tracking (the hare).' Probably the use of the word in this latter meaning depends on the swiftness of the hare in her flight, for the Master of Game (ch. xxxv, p. 181) calls the hare "the king of all venery." Turbervile, in some verses before chap. 58, p. 160, makes her say,

For running swift, and holding out at length, I beare the bell above all other beasts.

Very properly, therefore, Chaucer provided the Monk with grey-hounds "as swifte as fowel in flight."

The Monk's fondness for hunting the hare, rather than some other animal, depended not on her swiftness alone. The Duke of York not only introduced the hare first among animals to be hunted, but says (ch. ii, p. 14):

Much good sport and liking is the hunting of her, more than that of any other beast that any man knoweth. . . And that for five reasons. The one is, for her hunting lasteth all the year as with running hounds without any sparing, and this is not with all the other beasts. And also men hunt at her both in the morning and in the evening. . . That other reason is . . . for hounds must need find her by mastery, and quest point by point. . . And when she is started it is a fair thing. And then it is a fair thing to slay her with strength of hounds, for she runneth long and ginnously [that is, cunningly].

Turbervile is equally strong in praise of hare hunting (ch. 59, p. 162):

I might well maintaine that of all chases the Hare maketh greatest pastime and pleasure, and sheweth most cunning in hunt-

34 See Master of Game ch. xvi, p. 116: "If a man prick a horse," that is, 'hunt a horse.' The noun pricking meant 'the footprints of a hare,' as in M. of G. ch. xxxv, p. 185. For pricasour we may also compare Turbervile's "a good priker or huntsman on horsebacke" (ch. 38, p. 101).

ing, and is meetest for gentlemen of all other huntings, for that they may find them at all times and hunt them at most seasons of the yeare, and that with small charges.

Twici's Art of Venerie begins with the hare, and explains it as follows (Dryden's modernization of the Middle English text, p. 19):

Now will we begin with the Hare. 'And why, Sir, will you begin with the Hare, rather than with any other beast?' I will tell you; because she is the most marvellous beast which is on this earth; . . . and since all the fine terms [of hunting] are based upon it (that is, upon the chase of the hare).

Again, Chaucer follows English custom of the period when he has the Monk possess "grehoundes" for coursing the hare. The Master of Game says explicitly (ch. ii, p. 22):

Men slay hares with greyhounds and with running hounds by strength as here in England, but elsewhere they slay them also with small pockets, and with purse-nets, and with small nets with hare-pipes, and with long nets, and with small cords. . . . But, truly, I trow, no good hunter would slay them so for any good. 35

The modern editors of the *Master of Game* remind us, too (see Hare, *App*. p. 122), that hunting customs have changed since Chaucer's time, greyhounds being no longer used in hare hunting.

Some minor allusions in the Canterbury Tales indicate Chaucer's acquaintance with specific terms of hunting, or with the lore of game animals. In the Shipman's Tale, line 194 (C. T. B. 1294) reads,

As in a forme sit a wery hare,

where *forme* is the hunter's name for the lair of a hare. Skeat has no note, but Turbervile explains in his chapter 59 "Of the Subtilities of an Hare when she is Runne and Hunted" (p. 165):

I have also seene an Hare runne and stande up two houres before a kennell of houndes, and then she hath started and raysed an other freshe Hare out of her forme and set her selfe downe therin.

So in the Nun's Priest's Tale 517 (C. T. B. 4527) it is said of the fox.

For yet ne was ther no man that him sewed,

³⁵ The expressions "As here in England" and "Truly I trow etc." are the Duke of York's additions to the original of Gaston de Foix.

where sewed 'sued' is used in its specific sense of 'pursued as

game.'

Passages in the Friar's Tale 71 ff. (C. T. D. 1369 ff.) and the Merchant's Tale 769-70 (C. T. E. 2013-14) show Chaucer using another hunting term for the first time, a dog for the bow. They are, in the order above:

For in this world nis dogge for the bowe, That can an hurt deer from an hool y-knowe Bet than this Somnour knew a sly lechour, Or an avouter, or a paramour;

and of Damien the young lover,

And eek to Januarie he gooth as lowe, As ever dide a dogge for the bowe.

Skeat's notes on "dogge for the bowe" in these passages are valuable, but leave something to be desired. Such a dog was especially trained to accompany the bowman on a deer hunt, in order to follow and bring down a stricken deer only. Unlike a running hound, he must be absolutely subservient to his master, as silent as a lymer, making his attack only when so ordered, and only upon a deer already wounded by the bowman's arrow. The latter careful discrimination is indicated in the first passage, with figurative application to the Summoner. The quality of subservience is shown in the second quotation, to illustrate which the *CtDict*. refers to T. L. O. Davies, *Supplementary English Glossary* (1881), and says: "Such dogs, being well trained and obedient, were taken to typify humble and subservient people."

In the Maunciple's Tale 79-82 (C. T. H. 183-6) is a note-worthy bit of folklore regarding one of the game animals:

A she-wolf hath also a vileins kinde; The lewedeste wolf that she may finde, Or least of reputacion wol she take In tyme whan hir lust to han a make.

This allusion Skeat asserts with great definiteness is taken from Romance of the Rose 7799-7804. Such may be the source but, as Skeat admits, it occurs in an entirely different part of that work

from the lines used in the Maunciple's Tale just before. It is interesting, therefore, that a fuller account of this supposed characteristic of the she-wolf occurs in the Master of Game, chap. vii, pp. 54-5, so that this bit of animal lore may have been known to Chaucer, as to hunter and forester in England, quite apart from any literary source.³⁶

Apart from the Book of the Duchess and the Canterbury Tales, some significant references to hunting are to be found in Troilus and Creseide. In Book ii, lines 962-4 the cynical Pandarus replies to the question of Troilus "Shal I now wepe or singe" by saying:

Her love of freendship have I to the wonne, And also hath she leyd hir feyth to borwe; Algate a foot is hameled of thy sorwe.

Skeat's note explains hameled as 'cut off, docked,' but adds in his glossary 'it refers to the mutilation of dogs that were found to be pursuing game secretly. They were mutilated by cutting off a foot.' This is apparently not quite accurate, since the process of hameling (hambling) was rather to cut off the balls of the feet,³⁷ and is therefore less applicable to the single foot of the *Troilus* reference. Skeat's explanation would make the line mean that "sorwe" as a hound could no longer pursue Troilus so effectively, and in that case the line seems to have little direct connection with the preceding. Indeed, Skeat indicates its separation by a period after borwe. I

³⁶ The allusion to the Summoner as "wood were as an hare" (Friar's Tale 29, C. T. D. 1327), slight as is its relation to hunting, seems to be the earliest use of the expression "mad as a hare" "mad as a March hare." The latter form is first recorded as used by More in 1529. Doubtless the idea is connected with that of melancholy attributed to the hare. For example Turbervile says: "The Hare first taught us the use of the hearbe called wilde Succorye, which is verie excellent for those whiche are disposed to be melancholike; she hir selfe is one of the moste melancholike beastes that is."

The proverb in Troilus iv, 1373-4,

men seyn that hard it is The wolf ful and the wether hool to have,

also has its basis in the animal lore of a game animal. More remote is that of Troilus iv, 1453-4,

men seyn that one thenketh the bere, But al another thenketh his ledere.

Both these prover's are original with Chaucer. They are not in his source.

87 See NED., CaDict., etc. under hamble.

suggest the possibility of another explanation. The deer was sometimes hameled, as in training of young hounds, so that it is possible the line means a foot of thy sorrow (cause of thy sorrow) has been hameled. That is Creseide has already given her friendship and "leyd hir feyth to borwe," thus becoming hameled and more easily pursued. See the figure of pursuit in line 959. In any case, hameled is still another hunting term used by our poet.

The interpretation I have just given of line 964 seems more likely, because Pandarus again uses a hunting figure in lines 1535–36 of the same book. He there still further encourages Troilus by

saving:

Lo, holde thee at thy triste cloos, and I Shal wel the deer unto the bowe dryve.

From this, tryst (trist) as a hunting term must mean, not simply an appointed place as usually given, but a place at which the bowman stood to shoot the deer. The Master of Game (chap. xxxv, p. 190) uses both "standing" and "tryste," as in "And when the king is at his standing or tryste, whichever he prefers." The former seems to be defined in the reference on p. 189 to "the king's standing, if the king would stand with his bow," while on the next page we are told,

that the fewterers ought to make fair lodges of green boughs at the tryste to keep the king and queen and ladies and gentle-women, and also the greyhounds, from the sun and bad weather.

Tryst would seem to mean, then, not only the place of a bowman as in Chaucer, the "standing" in native English, but also a more elaborate place appointed for king and queen when he took a less active part in the hunt.³⁹ Both these examples are original with Chaucer.

In the Legend of Good Women 1188-1217, describing the hunt by Dido and Æneas and based on the Æneid iv, 129-59, Chaucer has

38 See Turbervile ch. 14, p. 36.

80 Minor allusions to hunting in Troilus occur in iii, 1779-81:

In tyme of trewe on haukinge wolde he ryde, Or elles hunten boor, bere, or leoun,— The smale beestes leet he gon bisyde.

but this is from Boccaccio's Filostrato. In v, 1238, where Troilus dreams of "a boor with tuskes grete," the dream notion is Chaucer's, as well as the kissing of the lady in his arms. The boar, however, belongs to Boccacio.

unified the scene, and in some particulars made it conform to English hunting practice. While nets and spears are mentioned (1190) as by Virgil,⁴⁰ the goats and the boar of the Latin poet are omitted, and the hunt is mainly confined to the hart—the appropriate game for a royal hunt—as in the *Book of the Duchess* and the *Knight's Tale*. Here, too, Chaucer again uses the specific hunting term find for the discovery of the game animal, and adds at once his only example of true hunting cries: ⁴¹

The herd of hertes founden is anoon, With "Hey, go bet, prik thou, lat goon, lat goon." 42

Nor must we forget, among the allusions to hunting in the Legend of Good Women, some of the gifts which Dido gave to Æneas. None were too good for him, we are told in lines 1114 ff., and among them

Ne gentil hautein faucon heronere, Ne hound for hert or wilde boor or dere,

the latter especially an appropriate gift for a royal hunt.

There are, besides, a number of minor allusions to hunting in

40 Nets were sometimes used in England, in order to confine the hunt within certain boundaries, as indicated in a footnote to Master of Game p. 30.

⁴¹ Very different these from the cries and shouting when the fox is pursued by the widow, her daughters, and "many another man," by the dogs of the farm and the maid Malkin, in the Nun's Priest's Tale (C. T. B. 4565 ff.).

⁴² The punctuation should show, as does that of the Globe edition, that the hunting cries proper conclude with this line. I suggest also that the next two lines are specifically what the "yonge folk," as distinct from their elders, boastingly say, and that this fact should be more adequately indicated by new marks of quotation inclosing lines 1214–5, as perhaps a dash after the latter. Chaucer then concludes the account of the royal hunt with "and up ('upon that') they (the elders, not the boastful youth) kille

These wilde hertes and han hem at hir wille."

The bestys wilde or wild(e) bestes of some MSS. may be explained as a misunderstanding of this conclusion, as if it belonged to what is said by both old and young. Chaucer, I take it, meant to emphasize the hart hunting, and as I have pointed out above no other animals are included in the description by him. Besides, this foolish boast was surely not spoken by Dido or "this Troyan by her syde" while actually engaged in hunting the royal game.

The hunting cry "Hey." occurs in Sir Gawain and the Green Knight (1158), where with "war" it is used to hold in the hinds. "Go bet, prik thou" are terms of encouragement, as Skeat says, but they seem here to apply specifically to the setting on of the "finders," while "lat goon" must be the cry at the un-

coupling of the running hounds after the finding of the hart.

Chaucer. In the Prologue to the Legend of Good Women (B. 131), the "smale foules"

That from the panter and the net ben scaped

rejoice in their escape, and sing "the fouler we defye." The Host in the *Canterbury Tales* addresses the poet in a hunting figure (C. T. B. 1886):

Thou lokest as thou woldest finde an hare, For ever upon the ground I see thee stare.

Sir Thopas, and the Marquis Walter in the Clerk's Tale were hunters, as indicated in lines B. 1926-9, E. 81, 234. The Christmas time in the Franklin's Tale (F. 1254) brings "braun of the tusked swyn," a product of the hunt. The Maunciple uses a figure from hunting in his Prologue (H. 77), and the Phebus of his Tale, Apollo the archer (H. 108, 129), is made to kill his wife with bow and arrow, which he later breaks in grief when he realizes he has used them so disastrously (H. 264, 269).

The illustrations and interpretations of this paper indicate that Chaucer knew much more of medieval hunting practice than has usually been supposed. It shows, too, that he used hunting terms in their strict hunting senses, in other words with a realism quite in keeping with that shown in so many other particulars throughout his work. Once again did the poet return to the subject in what might have been an extremely interesting presentation. When the Monk has wearied his audience with his doleful tales of misfortune, and the Knight has stopped him with "good sir, namore of this," the Host suggested something more in keeping with the Monk's character (B. 3995):

Sir, sey somewhat of hunting I yow preye.

But for some reason Chaucer was not ready with a hunting tale, and the Monk is allowed to put us off:

"Nay," quod this Monk, "I have no lust to pleye."

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45 The humorous pursuit of the fox which carried off Chanticleer in the Nun's Priest's Tale contains no technical hunting language.

A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PERUVIAN LITERATURE (1821–1919)

KNOWLEDGE of the literary manifestations of Latin America is now recognized as an important part of Romance Language study, and a social and commercial asset to all who travel south of the Rio Grande. As yet we are handicapped by a scarcity of Latin American books in our libraries and by a lack of manuals of literature and articles in scholarly magazines. Notable efforts to fill this want include Coester's Bibliography of Spanish American Literature (The Romanic Review, Jan.-March, 1012) and his Literary History of Spanish America—the latter recognized both here and in South America as an admirable introduction to the study of Spanish American letters. Other contributions are P. H. Goldsmith's A Brief Bibliography of Books in English. Spanish and Portuguese, relating to the republics commonly called Latin American, New York (Macmillan) 1915; E. C. Hills' list of Spanish American novels (Hispania, May, 1919); C. K. Jones' Suggested Reading in Spanish American Prose (Hispania, Oct. 1920): and Isaac Goldberg's Studies in Spanish-American Literature, New York (Brentano) 1020, which discusses at length the Modernista movement and sympathetically studies five of the leading literary figures.

The student who wishes to make an intensive study of one country is held back by the lack of first hand material and is perhaps misled by a seeming scarcity of literary production. In the case of Peru with which this article deals few manuals are to be found even in Spanish. So far as I am aware only two histories of Peruvian literature have thus far been written. José de la Riva Agüero's Carácter de la literatura del Perú independiente (1907) was the first in the field. Written as a thesis for the degree of bachiller it has attracted much favorable comment in South America. This book is now a literary curiosity and cannot be secured at any price in the book stores of Lima. It was, however, published in the Revista Universitaria (1907–8) of the University of San

Marcos and those interested may possibly obtain the files of the magazine. A more recent book is Dr. Javier Prado's El genio de la lengua y de la literatura castellana y sus caracteres en la historia intelectual del Perú, Lima, 1918. It deals with the whole field of Peruvian literature, though its brevity (194 pages) naturally prevents a detailed treatment of the lesser writers. This volume is obtainable and will prove a valuable addition to any library.

In both the above mentioned books the footnotes are not assembled in any formal bibliography. Coester's Bibliography is admittedly incomplete and his history of Spanish American literature likewise lacks an extensive bibliography. In this field the work of Medina with its elaborate detail leaves little to be desired in the Colonial period, and René-Moreno's efforts have added invaluable notes on later periods. Both these studies, however, are relatively rare books and are not always accessible.

In the notes which follow it is intended to supplement to a certain extent the material now available. Properly speaking it is rather a list of books than a formal bibliography. It includes works that the writer found in the National Library in Lima, the private library of Dr. Javier Prado, and the collections of the University of San Marcos, the Arequipa Club and the University of Cuzco.1 No titles have been gleaned from histories of literature, bibliographies or catalogues and no claim of completeness is made except that of including the books actually in these libraries in 1919. From the list are omitted titles of works of a purely scientific nature; mention being made of history, biography, essays, epistolary correspondence, prose fiction and poetry in the period 1821-1919.2 The footnotes contain references to critical or biographical articles in books or magazines of Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay. No reference is made in the notes, however, to the valuable book published in Lima under the auspices of the Hispanic Society and edited by W. B. Parker, Peruvians of To-day (1919). This is

² In the case of Ricardo Palma philological studies are also included. This part of the bibliography is, I think, practically complete.

¹ The bibliography of Ricardo Palma includes titles of books and publications to be found in his private library. Access to this was given me by his daughter, Angélica Palma, who assisted in compiling the data.

one of a series now being published sontaining brief biographies of living men. To the student of modern Spanish-American literature it is of great importance, including as it does in the case of authors the principal facts of their lives, and, as far as space permits, a list of their works. Nor is mention made in the notes of the more extensive compilation of biographies, Paz Soldan's Diccionario biográfico de Peruanos contemporaneos, Lima, 1917, a book more difficult to obtain and somewhat out of date.

In closing this introduction the writer wishes to express his appreciation of the unfailing courtesies extended him by Dr. Javier Prado y Ugarteche, Rector of the University of San Marcos. To Señor Urbano A. Revoredo, Librarian of the University, and to Señor Carlos A. Romero of the National Library, he owes generous thanks for office and library facilities. He is especially indebted to Señorita Angélica Palma, without whose assistance the bibliography of Ricardo Palma would have been incomplete. Thanks are also due to Professor J. D. M. Ford who was so kind as to read the manuscript copy.

A list of the abbreviations which appear in the footnotes follows:

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³⁴ Has written a number of text books on history, among them Apuntes de Historia crítica del Perú. Lima. Tip. El Lucero. 1909, and Historia del Perú prehispánico. Lima. Lib. Fr. Galland. 1918.

REVIEWS

Paris et les Parisiens au Seisième Siècle. Paris Physique—Paris Social—Paris Intime. By Alfred Franklin, Paris, Émile-Paul, 1921, pp. 536.

This volume by the retired Administrateur of the Bibliothèque Mazarine, was printed during the years 1915-1917, "au milieu de difficultés sans cesse renaissantes et dans des conditions exceptionnelles de lenteur." Coming from the pen of the noted authority of the social history of the thirteenth and sixteenth century the reader could expect nothing but a splendid piece of work. His expectations, however, could not have imagined any book quite so fascinating. As a scholarly document it is a monument of research, as a literary work it has infinite charm. The Preface states clearly the purpose of the author and we can do no better than cite its concluding paragraph:

Pour moi, humble chercheur, les infiniment petits de nos annales bourgeoises m'intéressent plus que les exploits de nos rois. Je me suis donc proposé seulement en ce volume de tracer un tableau fidèle du milieu dans lequel vivaient les Parisiens du XIV ° siècle. Seuls y trouveront place l'aspect que présentait leur ville, les institutions urbaines qui les régissaient, les conditions variées de leur existence quotidienne. C'est toujours incidemment qu'il sera ici question de la politique, de l'armée, de la marine, des beaux-arts et même des belles-lettres.

Although the book does not treat of literary history, except incidentally, those of us who are interested in the sixteenth century will find a work of the sort under consideration invaluable for the understanding of the literature of the period.

In the first part of the book, "Paris Physique," the author describes in great detail the growth of the city, its limits at various moments, its walls, its streets, the names given to those streets, how they were numbered, what sort of street signs existed at the time,—all this accompanied by interesting illustrations. When one reads the description of the dirt, smells, and other sources of infection one begins to wonder how anyone remained alive under those conditions. The pages devoted to the street cries of Paris are exceedingly interesting. M. Franklin takes up every possible phase of life, describing the carriages in which rode the people of that time, the lighting of the streets, the bridges, public clocks, fountains. He tells us that in general the authors of the sixteenth century, so generous in their praises of Paris, were not very enthusiastic about the Parisians. He cites from Lestoile, Rabelais, and others.

In the second part, "Paris Social," we learn about the administration of the municipality, the street criers, the reform of the calendar, money, taxes, privileges granted to "familles nombreuses," the curious trials of animals—I am simply picking out a few details from the great mass of information—instruments of torture, duels, begging, drunkenness, the care of the poor, etc. Every now and then the author throws interesting light on some French proverbs whose historical significance has long been forgotten. The third chapter, on Education, is of great importance and from the point of view of narration, extremely vivid. The following chapter throws much new light on the history of printing, on the organisation of printers, book-sellers, binders, copyists—invaluable information for the student of literary history. This material is immediately followed by a

description of workingmen's corporations and other topics of interest to the

student of the history of labor.

"Paris Intime," the subject of the third part of the volume, gives us a picture of the daily life of the people which no one study has yet assembled. The reader remains dumbfounded at the author's acquaintance with every possible phase of the human activity of the time, knowledge gleaned from an infinite amount of reading. The abundant notes bear witness throughout the book of extensive consultation of manuscripts, historical, literary works and documents of every conceivable nature, with a judicious choice of what is trustworthy and reliable. This third part is divided into seven chapters with the following headings: "Le mariage et l'enfant, L'appartement, Le costume, Les repas, La santé, La religion, Fêtes et jeux." Under these subdivisions the author groups a wealth of information and presents it in a scholarly and at the same time attractive way. We follow the sixteenth century society through all its activities, and every now and then the author allows his personal attitude to show through this mine of material, as for instance:

"On ne regardait pas alors un enfant à élever comme une égoiste source de joie et de plaisir pour la maison, et l'on se rendait très bien compte que, dans son intérêt comme dans celui de la société, l'intervention d'une main ferme était souvent indispensable."

M. Franklin cites from Rabelais, from Marguerite de Navarre, Corrozet, and from many other well known writers of the time. He even enters into philological discussions and gives evidence of a deep understanding of the language of the period.

It is interesting to read such minute details as the meal-hours, the order of courses, the food, and beverages in vogue at the time, the use of forks, toothpicks, tobacco, and the first use of the pipe in smoking. We read here of the origin of such expressions as mettre le couvert: and nover deux bouts. The chapter on "La santé" gives a detailed account of the knowledge of medicine at the time, the treatment of certain diseases, the superstitions connected with both the disease and its treatment, while the following chapter, "La Religion," goes into the beginnings of the Reformation, an account of pilgrimages, penalties, relics, criers, funerals and cemeteries. Finally, in the chapter on "Fêtes et Jeux," we learn of the working day and the holiday, the fires of Saint John, music, animal fights, popular entertainments, gifts, various games and toys for children.

Here then is a book which, though not intended primarily for students of literature, is of great value to them. Until its publication, in order to get only a very incomplete picture of life in Paris in the sixteenth century, one had to consult an endless number of volumes, many of which are inaccessible to anyone living abroad. In the volume at hand all this information is brought together, with the addition of much that is new and heretofore unpublished. The material is classified so that it is easily consulted and with all that it is presented in a fascinating style. Literature is unintelligible without history and especially without a knowledge of social history. Paris et les Parisiens au xvie siècle furnishes the background which every student of the literature of the sixteenth

century needs.

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